MARCH OF THE TITANS

THE COMPLETE HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

PROMETHEUS EDITION

VOLUME I: THE RISE OF EUROPE

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE FALL OF ROME

ARTHUR KEMP

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OF THE TITANS
THE COMPLETE
HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE
Prometheus edition

Volume I: The Rise of Europe
From the Earliest Times to the Fall of the Roman Empire

By

Arthur Kemp

B.A. (Pol. Sci., Intl. Pol., Pub. Admin)

Ostara Publications

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About the Author:

The author in 2015.

Arthur Kemp was born of a British father and a Dutch mother in Southern Rhodesia in 1962. Educated in South Africa, he holds a degree in Political Science, International Politics and Public Administration, having studied at the University of Cape Town and the University of South Africa. He was conscripted for compulsory national service in South Africa, serving four years in the South African Police (1984–1988). After that, he worked at the following places: as a journalist on *The Citizen* newspaper in Johannesburg, for the then official opposition Conservative Party in South Africa, as a risk consultant, as a public relations specialist, as a retail market analyst for a blue-chip company in Britain; for the British National Party, and ultimately as an author and publisher. The book you hold in your hands is the result of over 40 years of constant work and worldwide travel.

Other books by Arthur Kemp:

- *Victory or Violence: The Story of the AWB of South Africa* (1990, updated 2022)
- *Folk and Nation: Ethno-nationalism Explained* (2008, updated 2020)
    - Translated into Italian as *Popolo e Nazione – spiegazione dell'Etnonazionalismo* (2015)
- *The Immigration Invasion: How Third World Immigration is Destroying the West and What Needs to be Done to Stop It* (2008, updated 2021).
- *Jihad: Islam's 1,300 Year War on Western Civilization* (2009, updated 2020).
- *The Lie of Apartheid and Other True Stories from Southern Africa* (2009).
- *Four Flags: The Indigenous People of Britain* (2009) .
- *Headline: The Best of BNP News: The Stories Which Helped Propel the British National Party into the Political Mainstream. Volume I, July–December 2008* (2011).
- *Headline: The Best of BNP News: The Stories Which Helped Propel the British National Party into the Political Mainstream. Volume II, January–June 2009* (2011).
- *The Children of Ra: Artistic, Historical and Genetic Evidence for Ancient White Egypt* (2012, updated 2020).
- *Nova Europa: European Survival Strategies in a Darkening World* (2013).

    Translated into French as *Bâtir le foyer blanc: Une stratégie de survie pour les Européens devant le flot montant des peuples de couleur* (2015).

    Translated into Italian as *Nova Europa Strategia di Sopravvivenza Europea* (2015).

    Translated into German as *Nova Europa Strategiekonzept Für Das Überleben Der Europäer In Einer Dunkler Werdenden Welt* (2018).

    Translated into Dutch as *Nova Europa: Europese overlevingsstrategie in een verduisterende wereld* (2018).
- *The War Against Whites: The Racial Psychology Behind the Anti-White Hatred Sweeping the West* (2020)
- *Race and Racial Differences: A Handbook for the 21st Century, How DNA Shapes Mankind into Seven Major Races* (2022).

Foreword

The idea for writing this book came from a perusal of the history section of the Jagger Library at the University of Cape Town, South Africa, in 1983. While undertaking some unrelated research, I chanced upon a book dealing with the history of the Chinese people.

Intrigued, I investigated further in that section of the library. I found rows of books dealing with the history of the Japanese, the black race, the Incas, Aztecs, the Australian Aborigines, the Arabs, the Native Americans, the Polynesians—in fact there was a history of every people and every race on earth—except, much to my surprise, the white race.

This lack of a history of the white people of the world has persisted to this day: and it is to correct this imbalance that this book has been written. As it is a history of a defined race, not of any particular country, its narrative follows several continents and centuries, not limiting itself to any one geographical region.

I have always felt that the point of studying history is not the memorizing of some dates and facts, but rather the search for and discovery of the forces causing the results we see before our eyes as historical events.

History lost its value through the efforts of academics producing lists of meaningless dates and names, expecting everyone else to be as interested in their lists as they are.

The proper study of history is in reality a tremendously exciting field of endeavor—the exploits and tribulations detailed in this book will hopefully convince skeptics of this!

More importantly, history does indeed contain lessons—sobering ones, with massive implications. As this book will show, it raises issues which confronted past civilizations, and which confront modern society—how we answer them will determine if our society survives or vanishes like those of old.

This new edition contains the most relevant and up-to-date genetic, archaeological, and historical research available at time of writing. As a result, certain sections have been modified to be in accord with the very latest known facts.

My deepest thanks to all those who have supported my research efforts over the decades. Without you, this work would not have been possible.

Arthur Kemp

July 2023

Note to the reader: The year dating for ancient times in this new edition has been updated to use the term "Years Before Present," or YBP for short. This is to bring all dates into line with the use of radiocarbon dating, or "carbon-14" dating as developed in 1949 by the American chemist Willard Libby. This has been done to end the confusing "BC" and "AD" terminology used in previous editions. Dates commonly referred to as "AD" (that is, from the Christian year "0" to the present day, have been retained in their original format, due to their common usage and understanding by everyone.

Athena, Greek goddess of wisdom. Roman copy of a Greek work, 4th century BC.
British Museum, London.

Chapter 1: Race, Ethnicity and Culture

Crucial to the understanding of the theme of this book is the understanding of the concepts of race, ethnicity, culture, and the effect of the environment upon achievement. All of these topics have been subjected to great misunderstanding and confusion, and it is therefore vital to be absolutely clear on these topics.

Race: A Group of Individuals Sharing Common Genetics

A “race” is defined as a group of individuals sharing common genetic attributes which determine that group’s physical appearance, psychological traits, and cognitive abilities.

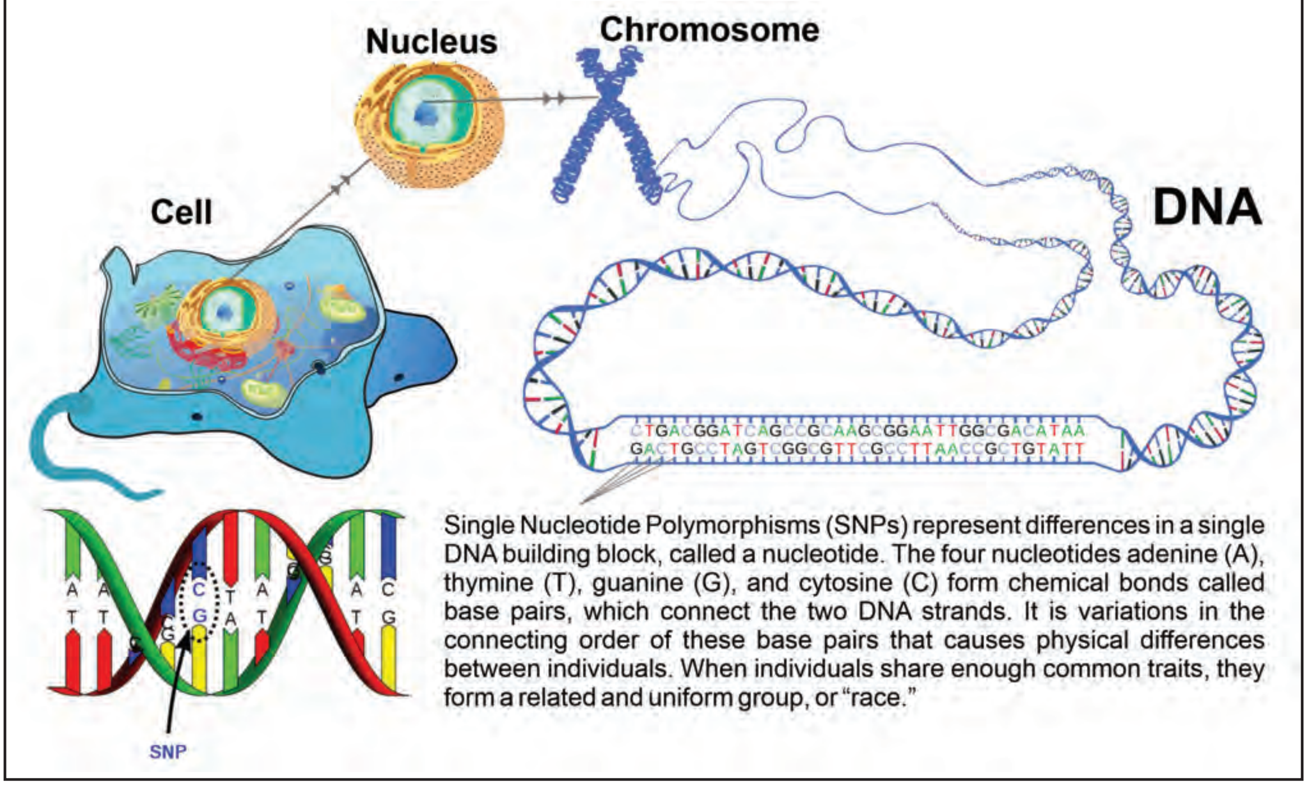
These attributes are created by specific parts of the deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA, the well-known “double helix”) which every living creature possesses. It is not the shape of the DNA which creates differences, but rather individual component parts of this DNA, commonly called “genes,” which are the cause of the physical differences associated with racial differentiation.

“Genes” are the name given to specific places on a DNA strand. It is at these places that smaller but highly important changes in the molecular makeup of the DNA strand occur, specifically where compounds called nucleobases connect to each other in arrays called “Single-Nucleotide Polymorphisms,” or SNPs.

It is here that amino acids are “encoded” for various attributes. These encoded amino acids are the cause of the physical appearance of the organism in which these genes are found, and of its mental or psychological traits.

In this way, for example, a specific SNP array, or “gene,” will generate the coding for light skin or dark skin, for light eyes or dark eyes, for light hair or dark hair, for height, for skeletal shape, and so on. It has also now been proven beyond question

HOW GENES CREATE RACE: BY VARIATIONS AT S**INGLE-NUCLEOTIDE POLYMORPHISM (SNP)** LEVEL


Nucleus
Chromosome
Cell
DNA
CTGACGGATCAGCCGCAAGCGGAATTGGCGACATAA
GACTGCCTAGTCGGCGTTCGCCTTAACCGCTGTATT
A A C T A A C
T T G A T T G
SNP

Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) represent differences in a single DNA building block, called a nucleotide. The four nucleotides adenine (A), thymine (T), guanine (G), and cytosine (C) form chemical bonds called base pairs, which connect the two DNA strands. It is variations in the connecting order of these base pairs that causes physical differences between individuals. When individuals share enough common traits, they form a related and uniform group, or “race.”

that these SNP array differences are also responsible for intelligence, personality, and psychology—attributes which are all the product of genetics.

SNPs play a major role in the determination of ancestry, and therefore race, because individuals from closely related groups have very similar SNPs, and this is why they tend to look alike.

Autosomal DNA Controls Physical Appearance

The part of a person's DNA that contains these important SNP arrays is known as autosomal DNA, and in each individual, it is inherited from both parents.

It is this part of an individual's DNA that determines their physical appearance, and therefore, in groups, their "race."

As generations go by, this autosomal DNA gets "mixed up" and recombines in sometimes random ways that can either accentuate certain traits or disregard them altogether. It cannot, however, create "new" traits, only combinations of previous traits. In this way, certain traits can become "dominant" or "recessive," and will either appear or disappear depending upon the parents' choice of mates.

Haplotypes Control Ancestral "Trees"

"Chromosomes" are groups of genes, and all humans have 46 chromosomes arranged in 23 pairs. All humans possess chromosomes that never mix or change. These are called "haplotypes."

AUTOSOMAL DNA CLUSTERS BY RACIAL GROUP

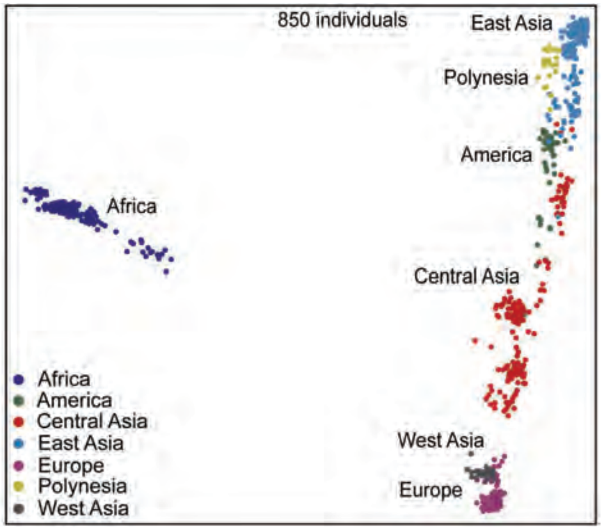


Figure 3b from the scientific paper "Toward a more uniform sampling of human genetic diversity: A survey of worldwide populations by high-density genotyping," Xing, J., et al., Genomics 96 *(2010), 199–210, shows exactly how genes "cluster" according to race.*

Two of these haplotypes, the so-called "X" and "Y" haplotypes, serve a primary function in determining the sex of the individual. "X" is the female chromosome, and "Y" the male chromosome. Sex is determined at the moment of conception, depending upon the chromosome being carried by the sperm cell.

If the sperm cell carries an X chromosome, the fetus (which already has a "built-in" X chromosome) ends up with two X chromosomes (XX) and will therefore be female. If, however, the sperm cell carries a Y chromosome, then the fetus will end up with an X and a Y chromosome (XY), and the fetus will be a male.

This simple process carries with it an important genetic implication: namely that Y chromosomes are always passed down *unchanged* from father to son. As a result, the study of Y chromosomes provides valuable insight into the origin of that individual in terms of descent on the paternal side.

The X chromosome, however, also includes DNA from some of the female's paternal ancestry and is therefore less reliable in determining solely maternal ancestral descent.

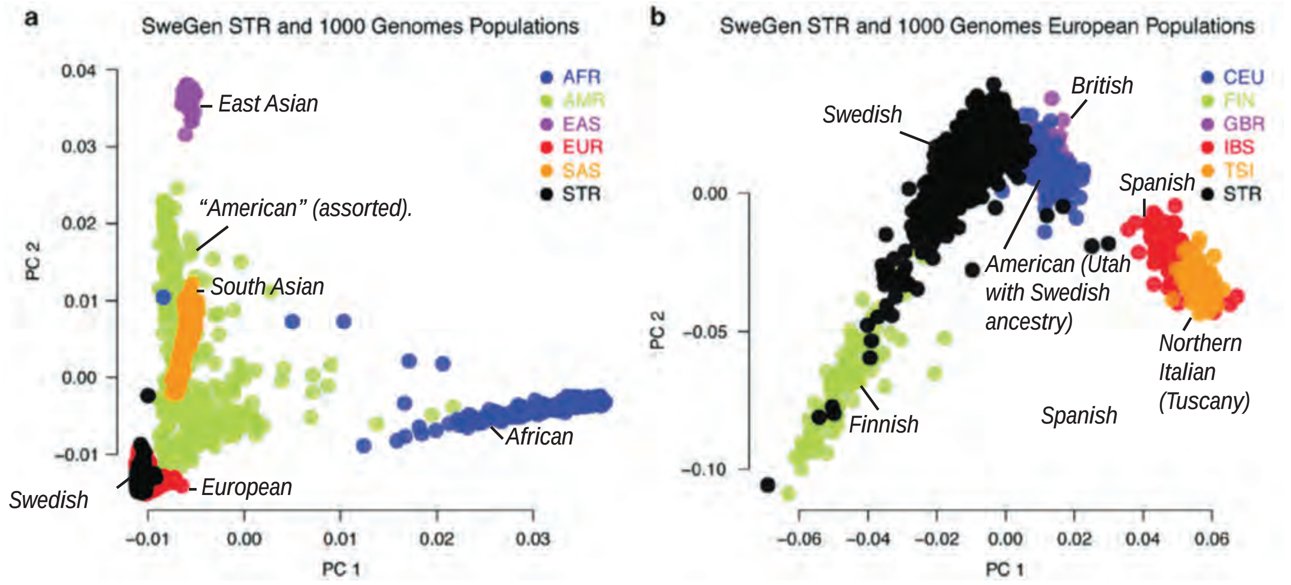
This issue is solved by studying what is known as "mitochondrial DNA," or mtDNA. mtDNA serves primarily as the "energy source" for the cells, but, because they are exclusively inherited through the female line, *serve the same purpose in tracking ancestry as Y chromosomes* do for the male. mtDNA is also categorized as a haplotype.

Therefore, when individuals are closely related to each other, they will all share certain haplotypes — Y and mtDNA — which will have come from a single, or small group of ancestors, along with a unique SNP array that has produced their physical appearance.

Race is a Product of Differing Groups of Genes

The ready availability of modern commercial home genetic testing kits, first launched in November 2007, which can determine what they call "ancestry" (and is in fact, race) by DNA saliva samples alone, *is in fact absolute, conclusive and irrefutable proof that there is a biological basis to race, and that these traits are inherited.* These DNA tests work on the basis that all genetic samples "cluster" by racial

HOW GENETIC COMMONALITY CREATES RACES: SWEDISH DNA VS WORLD DNA



Swedish DNA mapped against (left) world racial populations, and (right) other European populations. These charts show clearly how DNA clusters, forming distinct genetically related groups which can be easily identified from one another by physical appearance. In both charts, Swedish DNA is represented by the dark black area labeled "STR" ("Short Tandem Repeats," or short repeated sequences of DNA). A total of 648,379 SNP positions were used to generate these two charts. Chart "a" left: Swedish (STR) samples compared to "AFR = African," "AMR = Admixed American," "EAS = East Asian," "EUR = European," and "SAS = South Asian." Chart "b" right: Swedish (STR) samples compared to "CEU: Utah Residents with Northern and Western Ancestry," "FIN: Finnish in Finland," "GBR: British in England and Scotland," "IBS: Iberian Population in Spain," and "TSI: Toscani in Italy." Source: Ameur, A., et al., "SweGen: A whole-genome data resource of genetic variability in a cross-section of the Swedish population," European Journal of Human Genetics, *vol. 25, pp. 1253–1260 (2017).*

group. This "clustering" process, when mapped out in graphical format, shows clearly that different races have different genetics.[1]

This clustering also clearly demonstrates that there are seven major races on earth, many with their own "sub-groups," which are, of course, caused by variations in the autosomal SNP structure.

Race is therefore the product of what sort of genes an individual has inherited.[2] These inherited characteristics are unchangeable through environmental pressures, and, as long as the gene pool of that group remains unaltered by mixing, their physical appearance will always remain similar.

Here it is valuable to highlight an important issue: while Y and mtDNA haplogroups are very accurate and reliable indicators of line of descent, it is the autosomal DNA which ultimately determines an individual's physical appearance.

It is therefore possible for an individual to have the Y or mtDNA haplogroup commonly associated with one race, but to have the physical attributes of another race. For this reason, most DNA "ancestry tests" use autosomal DNA as the basis of their results.

Ethnicity and Culture versus Race

Due to the ongoing confusion over "race" and "ethnicity," many people believe they are one and the same thing. In reality, ethnicity is defined as the creation of certain common traditions, languages, art forms, attitudes, and other means of expression by groups by individuals, most often within racial groups, but also possible across racial divides. In this way, for example, a language can be common across a racial divide (French is a good example, with "Francophone Africa" speaking French but not racially being European).

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[1] The first company to start using saliva samples and autosomal DNA to offer "ancestry testing" to the public was the California-based company 23andMe, which launched its products in 2007. Since then, hundreds, if not thousands of similar companies have been launched, and the formerly paper-records only company, Ancestry.com, has now become the largest DNA testing company in the world.

[2] For a full explanation of exactly how specific genes create racial types, see the author's book *Race and Racial Differences, A Handbook for the 21st Century* (2022).

A culture is the name given to the physical manifestations created by ethnic groups—the actual language, art forms, religion, social order, and achievements of a particular ethnic group.

To illustrate this point: it is possible to talk of a white race; of a Scottish ethnicity, and a Scottish culture. The last two—ethnicity and culture—are directly dependent upon each other, and flow from each other in a symbiotic relationship. If, however, a German baby had to be adopted at birth and raised in a "Scottish culture," that individual would be Scottish in all cultural aspects, and likely be racially indistinguishable from other Scotsmen.

However, a black African adopted into Scottish culture might well be superficially Scottish, but racially can never be "white," any more than a white person raised from birth in China could ever racially be "Chinese." An individual's physical appearance (and therefore their "race") is determined by their genetics, and nothing else.

Physical Characteristics are Genetic, not Environmental in Origin

Following from this reality of genetic determinism is the fact that physical and mental characteristics (the latter of which are merely the product of chemical, that is, physical, chemical interactions in the brain) are genetically determined at the moment of conception.

This means that there is absolutely no evidence to indicate that living in a "cold" or a "hot" climate does change the genetic makeup of a group of people—which is a common claim for the origin of the speciation of races into different types.

If a large group of Chinese people moved to Norway, and lived there for any length of time, all the while remaining (marriage and children wise) within their racial group, would anyone seriously suggest that they would "evolve" into blue-eyed blond people over any period of time?

The same argument can be used in reverse. Who would seriously contend that if whites moved to China (and remained within their own genetic community, not interbreeding with the local population), they would become Mongoloid in physical appearance after any length of time? People may grow a little taller or live a little longer with better nutrition or medical services, but this is merely an extension of the genetic potential of those people, rather than a change in the genes themselves.

A negative environment will naturally impede the progress of an individual, while a favorable environment will allow that individual to reach the maximum potential they have—but a favorable environment will never change that maximum potential.

An individual will only achieve what he or she is inherently capable of, and no amount of environmental change will alter that.

This perfectly obvious point can be proven with a simplistic example: an individual with a low intelligence quotient (IQ) of say 85, can be sent to an Ivy League university, and will never be a genius scientist or engineer, no matter how great the developmental environment has been.

On the other hand, an individual with an IQ of 130 who might be trapped in dire economic or social circumstances, will be highly unlikely to be able to join the ranks of the "great" in society.

Environment therefore allows an individual to reach their potential: it never actually changes what that potential might be.

Environment and Achievement

It is often claimed that some racial groups developed faster than others because of the accident of their geographic location. This is known collectively as the environmental theory of development: because some races were "lucky" enough to live around fertile river basins or had access to certain types of domesticated animals or edible plants, they then developed faster than other racial groups elsewhere in the world.

This worldview is the product of attempts to explain the huge technological gap which existed between the white Europeans and the black Africans, Native Americans (Amerinds), Asians, and Australian Aborigines at the time of white exploration and colonization of the world.

While it is not the purpose of this book to delve into what are, after all, subjective notions of superiority and inferiority (what is regarded as superior by some can be regarded as inferior by another), the issue of the technological gap between the races needs addressing, if only because it played such a huge role in the history of the white race's interaction with the other races of the world.

Disparity in Achievement Despite the Same Environment

The "environmental" theory as expounded by modern sociologists is destroyed by two main examples: Egypt, and a comparison between the indigenous cultures of Equatorial Africa and Central America.

In Egypt, as will be shown in this work, the black and white races shared an identical geographic location along the banks of the Nile River—yet the ancient white Egyptians produced a civilization which is still a marvel of world history, while the achievements of the black (Nubian) inhabitants of the same region were distinctly unremarkable in comparison.

It was only after coming into contact with the advanced Ancient Egyptians that the Nubians started building any structures at all, and, as impressive as the Nubian pyramids of the Sudan are, they are but pale imitations of the Egyptian originals.

If the "lucky environmental accident" were true, then there should not have been such a vast difference between the original white Egyptians and the black Nubians, since they shared an identical environment.

Often the argument is made that whites had an advantage because they had pack animals and horses while the native peoples did not—this argument ignores the fact that the white Egyptians did not have horses until long after the creation of many of their finest technological marvels.

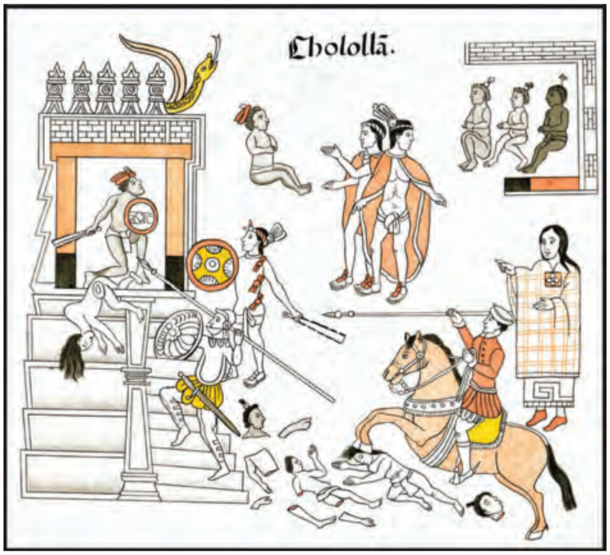
In fact, horses were introduced to Egypt by the Semitic Hyksos invasion which occurred hundreds of years after the first flowering of Egyptian civilization.

Comparison Between the Americas and Africa

It is of value to compare the achievements of the nonwhite Inca people of South America and the Aztec people of Central America—both of which were located just north and south of the equator, with that of the original heartland of the black race, also just north and south of the equator in Africa.

Due to the proximity to the equator, virtually identical environmental conditions prevailed (and still prevail) in those regions. Furthermore, neither of these people had horses, and both had the challenges of the equatorial rain forest to deal with.

TECHNOLOGICAL RACIAL DISPARITIES



A scene from the "Lienzo de Tlaxcala" (a 1779 AD copy of the 1556 AD original, made by the Indian Tlaxcallans, a native tribe ally of the Spanish Conquistadors in Central America) depicts a battle between the Spanish soldiers and Aztecs at Cholula. It accurately records the vast technological differences between the two races, with the Spanish possessing armor and steel weapons, and the natives armed with stone-edged clubs. This technological disparity was replicated in every single interaction between Europeans and non-Europeans during the Age of Exploration.

Despite the similarity in environment, the Amerinds in Central and South America were able to build sophisticated buildings, establish written forms of communication, produce gold, engage in precious metalworking, and a host of other advances. In Africa at the same time, little progress beyond the Stone Age was made.

The disparity between the nonwhite Amerinds and the nonwhite Africans cannot be explained by the "accident of geography."

Environment and the Fall of Civilizations

Lastly, and most devastatingly, the "environment" argument collapses when measured against the rise and fall of civilizations. Why is it that Ancient Egypt at one stage led the world in culture and civilization, yet today is a backward third world country?

NUBIAN PYRAMIDS: SMALL COPIES OF THE ANCIENT EGYPTIAN WONDERS

The most striking difference between the Nubian and Egyptian pyramids is in size. The highest of the Nubian structures is at Nuri, north Sudan (built circa 2640 YBP (640 BC)), which stands at 30 meters (98 feet). The highest Egyptian pyramid, that of Khufu (built circa 4570 (2570 BC)), stands at 138.8 meters (455 ft). Above left: The Nubian pyramids at Nuri, North Sudan. Above right: The pyramid at Giza, Egypt. Both images have humans for size comparison.

If environment alone gave certain peoples a "permanent advantage," then it would surely follow that Egypt would today be one of the most advanced countries in the world. In reality, it is, as any visitor to that land will testify, filled with misery, poverty, and backwardness—despite the "environment" being exactly the same as it was during the great age of the civilization which built the pyramids. The "environmental" theory does not, therefore, explain why Egypt, with exactly the same environmental conditions, lost its technological preeminence over the rest of the world.

Technological Ascendancy—Reasons

What caused the technological gap? If environment did not cause it, the only other logical explanation must be that certain types of cultures, or civilizations, are the products of certain types of people—representative of the innate potential of any given group. While this is presently deemed a politically incorrect point of view, the facts of historical development support no other conclusion.

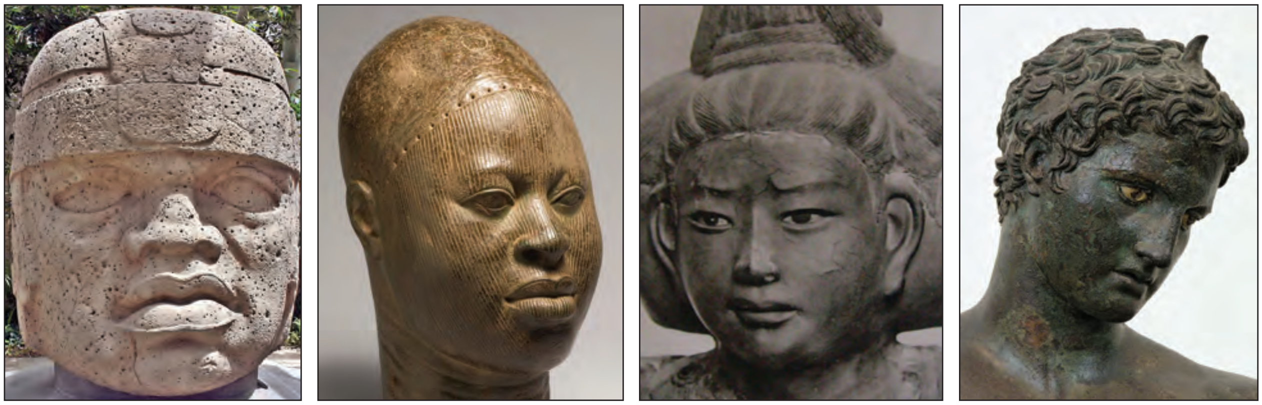
Another example: North America was for the greatest part colonized by white Europeans, and subsequently became the leading power in the modern world.

South America, on the other hand, having far richer natural resources than North America, was never majority colonized by white Europeans and today has a majority mixed-race population. This continent is classed as third, or at best, second world. If environment were the only factor determining levels of achievement, South America should in theory be more advanced than North America, since it has far more "environmental advantages."

Tracking Racial Types in Civilization

Finally, it should be discussed how race is tracked in history. How is it determined whether

CULTURAL ARTIFACTS REFLECT RACIAL TYPES



Tracking race in history: race depicted in art forms. Early civilizations very often depicted images of their own racial types in their works of art, based on the reality that their own types were the most common (or only) human models with which they had to work. A comparison of (from left to right) Olmec art, 2400 Years Before Present (YBP); African art, 600 AD; Japanese art, 1000 YBP; and Greek art, 2340 YBP, reflects this principle. Art forms are a reliable indicator of the racial type of the communities in which they were created.

the populations of certain societies or civilizations belonged to specific races?

The most obvious answer to this is through genetic testing, but, as mentioned before, this science has only become widely available in the first two decades of the 21st century. Prior to this, historians and archaeologists relied on three other methods, all of which still have validity: osteoarchaeology, art forms, and language.

Osteoarchaeology Reveals Broad Racial Types

Osteoarchaeology is the study of skeletal remains. As different racial groups have different physical characteristics, it is a relatively simple matter to determine the racial makeup of the inhabitants of a particular region by studying the contents of grave sites.

By measuring features of the skull, such as its overall length and the width of the nasal opening, forensic anthropologists can produce what is called "ancestry estimation." This entails comparing the measurements with those from skulls with known identities, to produce commonly used racial categories such as black, white, mixed race, Asian, etc. While this science is the subject of much hostility from race-denying sociologists, it remains a valid science, and has been used to help determine the origin of dead illegal immigrants found along the US-Mexico border. There, cranial measurements taken in the year 2020, can distinguish between Maya groups from Guatemala and Mexico and differentiate them from non-Maya people.[3] A study published in 2022 found that Artificial Intelligence (AI) "deep learning models" can be trained to predict race from x-ray images of various body parts alone. The study found that "AI can accurately predict self-reported race, even from corrupted, cropped, and noised medical images..."[4]

This science has proven equally useful in historical diggings where the examination of burial sites has created an understanding of the racial makeup of ancient peoples.

Race Appears in Art Forms

Art forms (whether conventional pictures, illustrations on pottery, or even statues) also provide significant indicators of the racial makeup of contemporary inhabitants.

The ancient civilizations in particular—of all racial groups—reflected themselves in their art forms (often because their own racial types were the only human models from which they had to work). In this way, for example, early Chinese art depicted principally Chinese people; Incan and Aztec art depicted only Incan or Aztec people,

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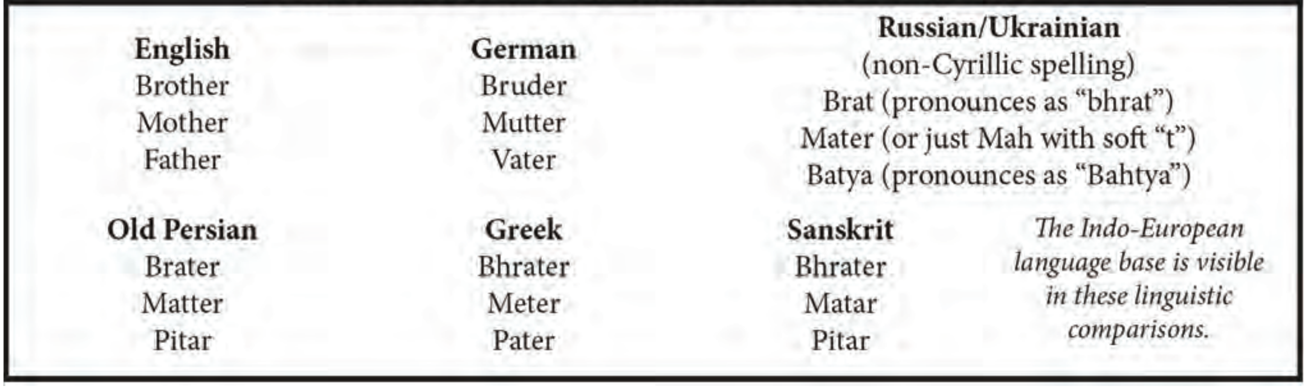
[3] Katherine Spradley, M., "Use of craniometric data to facilitate migrant identifications at the United States/Mexico border," *American Journal of Physical Anthropology*, 2021; 175: 486–496.

[4] Gichoya, J., et al. "AI recognition of patient race in medical imaging: a modelling study," *The Lancet*, Volume 4, Issue 6, E406-E414, June 2022.

TRACKING COMMON ORIGINS THROUGH LANGUAGE



English	German	Russian/Ukrainian (non-Cyrillic spelling)
Brother	Bruder	Brat (pronounces as "bhrat")
Mother	Mutter	Mater (or just Mah with soft "t")
Father	Vater	Batya (pronounces as "Bahtya")

Old Persian	Greek	Sanskrit
Brater	Bhrater	Bhrater
Matter	Meter	Matar
Pitar	Pater	Pitar

The Indo-European language base is visible in these linguistic comparisons.

and so on. In all societies, original art forms which portrayed people closely followed contemporary physical appearances.

Language Reflects Racial Similarities

The study of language is another important clue to the dispersion of peoples. Commonalities in language forms leave clearly identifiable "fingerprints" in cultures.

Similar words, phrases, or language forms are a clear indication of a single origin for civilizations, due to the fact that the people in those civilizations would at some stage have had a common origin. In this way, the route of a culture (and hence a people) can be traced by following a language.

An Objective Definition of Civilization

For the purposes of this book, civilization will be taken to mean the entire ambit of social/cultural manifestations which are characteristic to any particular nation or racial group. In this way, the accusation of subjectivity can be avoided. Civilization, in the broadest sense of the word, includes all social manifestations, from social interactions to language, art forms, science, technology, customs, and culture.

It is therefore possible to talk of a Japanese civilization, an American Indian (Amerind) civilization, a Polynesian civilization, an Australian Aboriginal civilization, a black civilization, and a white civilization, without being subjective about any of them.

Whites Defined by Genetic Commonality

For the purposes of this book, an ethnic or cultural group is defined as part of the white race as long as it shares enough of a common genetic inheritance with the broader racial group. When an ethnic group loses this genetic commonality, it is then formally excluded from the white racial category.

PHYSICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RACES ARE THE PRODUCT OF DIFFERENT GENES

A collection of skulls from different races as collected by Samuel George Morton (1799–1851), the professor of anatomy at the Pennsylvania Medical College in Philadelphia. From left to right: An African female, a European male, an Amerind/Spanish mixture from Mexico, a Han Chinese female, and a Southeast Asian (Malaya) male. Differences in skull shape are the product of different genes which are native to each race.

Chapter 2: Race—Why Civilizations Rise and Fall

When reviewing the historical development of all nations, it is quite often mentioned that there is a "rise and fall" of a particular civilization. This poses a major question: Why have some civilizations lasted a thousand years or more, while others rise and collapse within a few hundred?

Why is it, for example, that nations such as Japan, Sweden, and England—all nations with limited natural resources—could have progressive active cultures for more than one thousand years, whereas mighty civilizations such as classical Rome, Greece or Persia, among others, collapse after only a few centuries? Many historians blame the rise and fall of the great nations of the past on politics, economics, morals, lawlessness, debt, environment, and a host of other superficial reasons. However, Japan, England, and Sweden have gone through similar crises scores of times, without those countries falling into decay.

It is obvious that there must be some other factor at work—something much more fundamental than just variations in politics, morals, lawlessness, or any of the other hundreds of reasons that historians have manufactured in their attempts to explain the collapse of civilizations.

Each Society Unique to Each People

Herein lies the key to understanding the rise and fall of all civilizations. In any given territory, the people making up the society in that territory create a culture which is unique to themselves.

A society or civilization is only a reflection of the population of that particular territory.

For example, the Chinese civilization is a product of the Chinese people and is a reflection of the makeup of the population living in China. The Chinese civilization is unique to the Chinese people; they made it, and it reflects their values and norms.

As the Chinese people made the Chinese civilization, it logically follows that the Chinese culture would disappear if the Chinese people were to disappear. Presently the overwhelming majority of Chinese people live in China, creating the Chinese civilization in that land.

If, however, Australian Aborigines had to immigrate into China in their millions, and the Chinese population had to dramatically reduce in number, then in a few years the character of Chinese civilization would change—to reflect the new inhabitants of that territory. In other words, the society or civilization of that territory would then reflect the fact that the majority of inhabitants were now Aborigines rather than Chinese people.

In other words, if China had to fill up with Australian Aborigines, this would mean the end of Chinese civilization. Aborigines would create a new civilization which would reflect themselves, and not that of the Chinese people.

That this should happen is perfectly logical. *It has nothing to do with which culture is more advanced, or any subjective notions of superiority or inferiority.* It is merely a reflection of the fact that a civilization is a product of the nature of the people making up the population in the territory.

No Chinese People Means No Chinese Civilization

To go back to the Chinese example: If all Chinese people on earth had to disappear tomorrow, then obviously, Chinese civilization and culture would disappear with them.

It is this startlingly obvious principle which determines the creation and dissolution of civilizations—once the people who create a certain society or civilization disappear, then that society or civilization will disappear with them.

If the vanished population is replaced by different peoples, then a new society or culture is created which reflects the culture and civilization of the new inhabitants of that region.

Arrival of Whites Changed "American" Culture

There are numerous examples of this process at work. One which will be familiar to all is the shift which occurred in North America after the year 1492.

On that continent, the Amerind (American Indian) people lived for thousands of years, creating a civilization which dominated that continent.

In other words, the civilization and culture which dominated North America reflected the fact that the Amerind people lived and formed the majority population there.

After the year 1500, that continent started filling up with white immigrants from Europe. These white immigrants displaced the Amerinds by squeezing them out of possession of North America.

The great shift in North American civilization then occurred. Whereas the Amerind culture had dominated for thousands of years, within a couple hundred years the dominant civilization on that continent had become white European.

This shift was the direct result of the fact that the majority of inhabitants of North America were white Europeans—and the Amerind civilization, for all practical purposes, disappeared.

The Amerind civilization in North America "fell" *only because the population of North America changed.*

Racial Shift Decisive in the "Rise" and "Fall" of all Civilizations

This effect—the displacement of peoples and the subsequent disappearance of their civilization—has direct implications in racial terms.

The rise and fall of any particular civilization can be traced, *not by the economics, politics, morals, etc., of a particular civilization, but rather by the actual racial presence of the people themselves.*

If the society which has produced a particular civilization stays intact as a racially homogeneous unit, then that civilization remains active.

If, however, the society within any particular given area changes its racial makeup—through invasion, immigration, or any decline in numbers—then the civilization which that society has produced will disappear with them and be replaced by a new civilization reflecting the new inhabitants of that territory.

India—Origin of the Caste System

Another example which still has direct bearing today is the "Aryan" civilization of India. While the word "Aryan" has come to be much abused, and used incorrectly in many historical texts, the reality is that a tribe of Indo-Europeans, calling themselves "Aryans," or "noble ones," in their original Sanskrit language, invaded north India circa 3,300 YBP, and set up a civilization of their own.[1]

This Aryan civilization—created by light-skinned and light-eyed people—was, however, eventually largely dismantled and "fell" because of four major factors:

— A large non-Aryan immigration from the racially darker south of the Indian subcontinent in order to take up work opportunities offered by the conquering Indo-Aryans;

— A high natural reproduction level among the non-Aryan immigrants;

— A high level of racial mixing between the Aryans and the southern immigrants, which changed the racial makeup of the inhabitants of the region; and

— A steady decline in the Aryan birthrate.

The Aryans were well aware of this process and set up a social system which they designed to prevent them from being subsumed. To this end, they developed a set of rules which socially segregated their society according to skin color.

They called this system *varna* (meaning "color") but it is better known by the name Portuguese explorers gave to it in their language, *castus,* or "caste."

Despite all its rules which strictly segregated society into classes based on skin color—with the highest class, the Brahmins, being the whitest, and the lowest class, the Untouchables, being the darkest (and even a law prescribing punishments such as death for miscegenation), the Aryans were eventually almost totally subsumed by the darker masses.

As will be explained later in this work, the same process occurred elsewhere in the ancient world. All civilizations—of any race—who either rely on other races to do their work for them, or are physically conquered by other races, will gradually be overrun by that new population, and these civilizations will "fall," or in many cases, just be replaced by the civilization of the newcomers.

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[1] See Chapter 7 for more details on the Indo-European invasions and Chapter 8 on the Aryans in India.

EGYPT—DIFFERENT RACES CREATE DIFFERENT CIVILIZATIONS

3350 YBP

100 AD

1980 AD

Above left: The white pharaoh, Queen Nefertiti, circa 3350 YBP; Center: The effects of racial mixing are clearly to be seen on the face of this coffin portrait of a Roman lady in Hawara, Egypt, 100 AD; Right: The mixed-race Egyptian, Anwar Sadat, president of Egypt in the twentieth century. Nefertiti ruled over an advanced civilization; Sadat ruled over a Third World country. The reason for the difference in cultures between Nefertiti's Egypt and Sadat's Egypt was a racial change in the Egyptian people.

Egypt: Miscegenation with Slaves Caused Egyptian Decline

As will be discussed in detail in the chapter on Ancient Egypt,[2] that civilization—surely the greatest of all from ancient times—was created by a white race, but using Nubians, blacks, and Semites to work on many of their building projects or as general slaves.

At various stages, the pharaohs also employed Nubian mercenaries, and ultimately Nubia and Sudan were physically occupied and incorporated into the Egyptian empire. Although the buildings of ancient Egypt are very impressive—many having survived through to the present day, their construction was dependent on the Egyptian ability to organize an unprecedented mass of human labor.

Under the direction of a scribe and architect, thousands of slaves and regiments of soldiers labored for decades to create the great buildings, using only levers, sleds, and massive ramps of earth. It is impossible to think that such massive use of slave and foreign labor would not have left some mark on the population of the land. Interbreeding took place, and this, combined with the natural growth and reproduction patterns of the slaves and laborers, meant that in a relatively short time they comprised a significant section of the population.

The continuous use of Nubians for labor eventually led to the establishment of a large resident nonwhite population in Egypt, with their numbers being augmented by natural reproduction and continued immigration.

The region was also occupied for two hundred years by the Semitic Hyksos, who intermarried with the local population, and this, was followed by other Semitic/Arabic immigration, fueled by the long existing black settlement on the southernmost reaches of the Nile River.

Once again, the factors which led to the extinction of the Aryans in India came into play in Egypt: a resident nonwhite population to do the labor, a natural increase in nonwhite numbers, physical integration, and a decline in the original white birthrate. All these factors compounded to produce an Egyptian population makeup of today that is very different from the men and women who founded Egypt and designed the pyramids.

As the population makeup shifted, so the cultural manifestations, or civilization, of that region changed to the point where the majority of the present-day population of the Middle East is, generally speaking, of mixed racial origin. This explains why the present inhabitants of Egypt are not the same people who designed the pyramids. The Egyptians of today are a completely different people, racially and culturally, living among the ruins of another race's civilization.

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[2] See Chapter 10.

Identical Reasons for Decline in Middle East

The decline and eventual near-total extinction of the white population in the Middle East marked the end of the original civilizations in those regions. In all the Middle Eastern countries, the Semitic (Arabic) and black populations grew as they were used as labor by the ruling whites. In the case of Sumer, the white rulers were physically displaced by military conquest at the hands of Semitic invaders. This process continued until almost all remains of the original whites in the greater region were assimilated into the darker populations. Only the occasional appearance of light-colored hair or eyes among today's Iraqis, Iranians, Syrians, and Palestinians serve as reminders of the original rulers of these territories.

Classical Greece and Rome

The classical civilizations in Greece and Rome also fell to this process. The great Athenian leader, Pericles, enacted a law in the year 451 BC limiting citizenship of that city-state according to racial descent.

However, some four hundred years later, this law was changed as the population shifts had become more and more evident.

Some Roman leaders tried to turn back the racial clock, but their efforts were in vain. The sheer vastness of the Roman Empire meant that all sorts of races were included in its borders, and this brew ultimately led to the dissolution of the original Roman population.

Lesson—Role of Racially Foreign Labor in the Decline of a Civilization

The lesson is clear: a civilization will remain intact as long as its creating race remains in existence.

This applies to all races equally: as long as a civilization's founding race maintains its territorial integrity and does not use large numbers of any other alien race to do its labor, that civilization will remain in existence.

Any civilization—be it white, black, Asian, or Aboriginal—stands or falls by the homogeneity of its population, and nothing else. As soon as a society loses its homogeneity, the nature of that society changes. This simple fact provides the key to understanding the rise and fall of all civilizations.

History Is a Function of Race

This is an immutable law of nature. It is the iron rule upon which all of human endeavor is built—that history is a function of race.

THE RISE AND FALL OF CIVILIZATIONS EXPLAINED

- Each and every society and culture is the sum and unique product of the people making up that society;
- For example: The Chinese civilization is the product of the Chinese people; the Australian Aboriginal culture is the product of the Aboriginal people, and white society is the product of white people;
- This has nothing to do with subjective notions of superiority or inferiority;
- If the people in a society change their racial makeup, it is therefore logical that the culture of that society will change to reflect this shift in society;
- This is what is called the rise and fall of civilizations—where one culture gets replaced by a different culture;
- The cause of this replacement of cultures is the replacement of the people in that society;
- In this way, the American Indian culture "fell" because they were replaced by whites as the dominant race on the North American continent;
- Civilizations do not then "fall"—they are merely replaced by another culture, which is the product of the new population.

A civilization rises and falls by its racial homogeneity and nothing else. As long as it maintains its racial homogeneity, it will last—if it loses its racial homogeneity, and changes its racial makeup, it will "fall" or be replaced by a new culture.

Chapter 3: The White Race—Origins and Definition

Thanks to the advent of modern genetic science, and specifically the ability to extract DNA from ancient remains (a development which only became commonplace during the first two decades of the 21st century), a much clearer picture of the origins of the modern European, or white, race has now emerged.

Previously, historians and archaeologists had to rely solely on cultural artifacts and the handful of skeletal remains in all attempts to sketch racial prehistory. This in turn led to the presumption that there had been a large degree of genetic uniformity in the various geographic regions where the different races established themselves.

Genetic testing on ancient skeletal remains in Europe in particular, has now proven this assumption incorrect. There was a large degree of genetic diversity in ancient Europe, and different groups came to dominance at different periods, all of which ultimately contributed to the creation of what is today called the white race.

It is the autosomal contribution of these different groups which has left its mark in the physical characteristics which are today uniformly recognized as "European" traits.

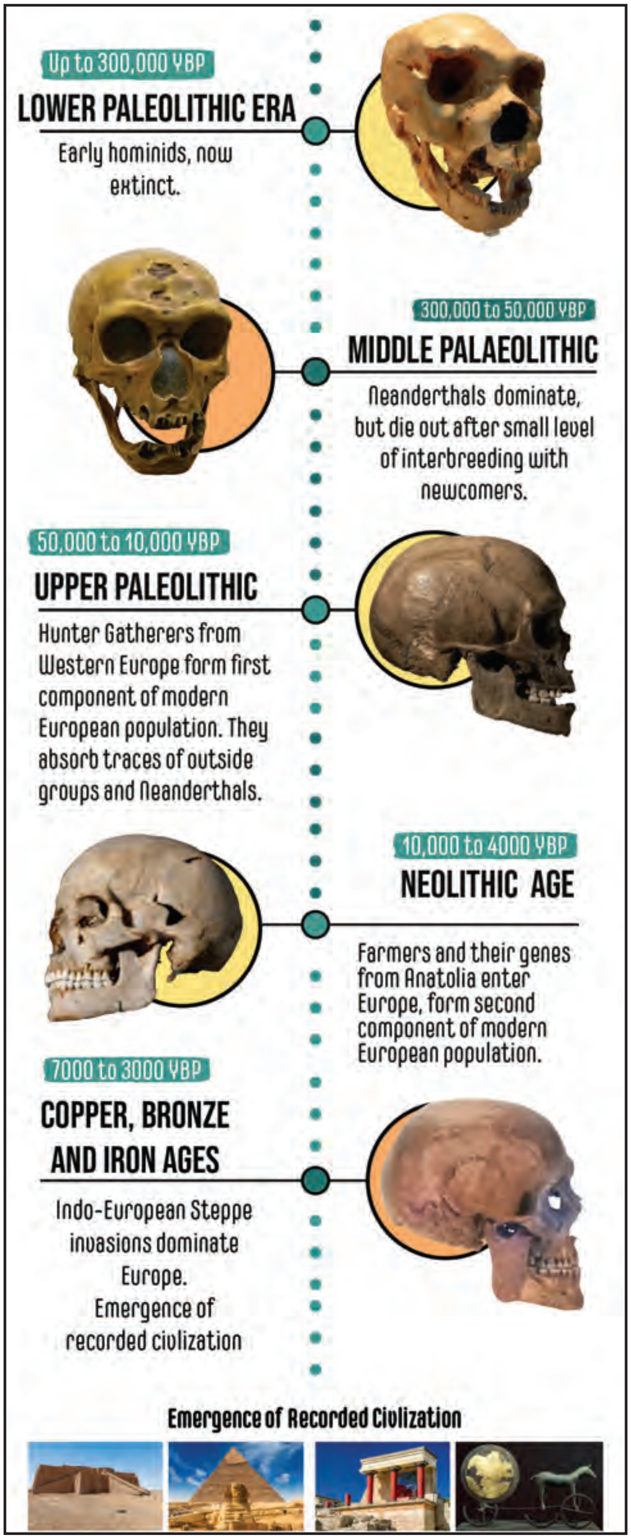
Time Periods in Prehistory

Before undertaking a survey of the genetic evidence for the peopling of Europe, it is first necessary to gain a basic understanding of the various time periods of this period of prehistory.

A. The Paleolithic Era encompasses all of prehistory until around 12,000 Years Before Present (YBP). This period is in turn broadly divided into three stages:

– *The Lower Paleolithic Era* which includes all time periods up until around 300,000 YBP. This was the era of the so-called "hominid" types, whose origin and fate are still a matter of debate.

– *The Middle Paleolithic Era* encompasses the period from 300,000 YBP to around 50,000 YBP. This era saw the development of early stone tools and other basic implements.


Up to 300,000 YBP
LOWER PALEOLITHIC ERA
Early hominids, now extinct.
300,000 to 50,000 YBP
MIDDLE PALAEOLITHIC
Neanderthals dominate, but die out after small level of interbreeding with newcomers.
50,000 to 10,000 YBP
UPPER PALEOLITHIC
Hunter Gatherers from Western Europe form first component of modern European population. They absorb traces of outside groups and Neanderthals.
10,000 to 4000 YBP
NEOLITHIC AGE
Farmers and their genes from Anatolia enter Europe, form second component of modern European population.
7000 to 3000 YBP
COPPER, BRONZE AND IRON AGES
Indo-European Steppe invasions dominate Europe. Emergence of recorded civilization
Emergence of Recorded Civilization

ANCIENT SKULLS: DEBATE OVER HOMO SAPIENS ANCESTRY

Above from the left: Skull of early Homo erectus, about 1.8 million years old. Dmanisi skull 3, D2700, found in Dmanisi, Georgia (Georgian National Museum, Tbilisi, Georgia); skull of Homo erectus pekinensis, also known as "Peking Man," 770,000 years old (Peking Man Museum, Beijing, China); Homo erectus skull, KNM-ER 3733, found in Kenya, 1.8 million years old (Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History, Washington DC, USA); and skull of Tautavel Man, approximately 550,000 years old. Found in the limestone cave of the Caune de l'Arago, Tautavel, France (Musée de Tautavel - Centre européen de préhistoire, Tautavel, dans le département français des Pyrénées-Orientales). The vast array of prehistoric skulls found—of which only a tiny number are shown here—all have one thing in common: there is, as of yet, no proven link to any modern human, a fact which remains the single biggest hindrance to all evolutionary theories.

– *The Upper Paleolithic Era* encompasses the period from 50,000 YBP to around 12,000 YBP. This era marks the emergence of early modern humans and is the period about which most is known from the prehistorical period. The last part of the Upper Paleolithic Era is known as the "Mesolithic" period, which saw the first large "stone age" building.

B. The Neolithic Era encompasses the period from around 12,000 YBP to around 3500 YBP, and is characterized by the appearance of the first large, fixed settlements and a cultural shift from hunter-gatherers to agriculturalists. The Neolithic era was ended by the introduction of metal working, first copper, then bronze, and finally iron. While there is no fixed date for the end of the Neolithic Era in Europe, it can be said that the emergence of the first great Classical Civilizations, or of properly recorded history, definitively marked the emergence of what is today called Western Civilization.

Homo Erectus and Neanderthals

Archaeology and its allied science, paleoanthropology, have revealed that life forms in the general shape of humans (that is, two arms, two legs, a torso, a head, and the ability to walk upright on the two legs) appeared in different places across the earth approximately two million years ago.

These were the "Homo erectus" (or "upright man") racial types so favored by evolutionists as the "ancestors of man." These creatures have been found scattered throughout Europe, Africa, China, and Australia. It remains speculative to say with any certainty that modern man is descended from any of these Homo erectus racial types.

The time of the Homo erectus types is known as the Paleolithic Age, and is deemed to have come to an end coinciding with the appearance of a new racial type, Neanderthal man. The first fully sequenced Neanderthal genome was generated in 2013, based on a bone fragment from the Altai Mountains in Siberia, estimated to be between 50,000 and 100,000 years old.

From this and other evidence, present-day genetic studies indicate that all human races apart from pure Africans have between one and two percent of Neanderthal-inherited genes, dating from an intermixture between that race and homo sapiens around 100,000 years ago, when founding populations were still tiny.

Disputed Origin of Racial Speciation

The origin of the different races on earth—as defined by a combination of physical appearance and genetics—remains hotly contested. There are essentially two theories, neither of which has been proven beyond any doubt. The two competing theories are known as the "Out-of-Africa" and the "Multi-regional Hypothesis." The "Out-of-Africa" theory asserts that all modern homo sapiens originated from a Homo erectus type in Africa, and speciated out into different races after leaving Africa about 100,000 years ago.

The "Multi-regional Hypothesis" in turn asserts that the races have independent multiple geographic origins over a much longer period.

While there are compelling arguments for both theories, they remain just that—theories—and it is unlikely that a clear answer will be provided to the question of the origin of races within the foreseeable future.

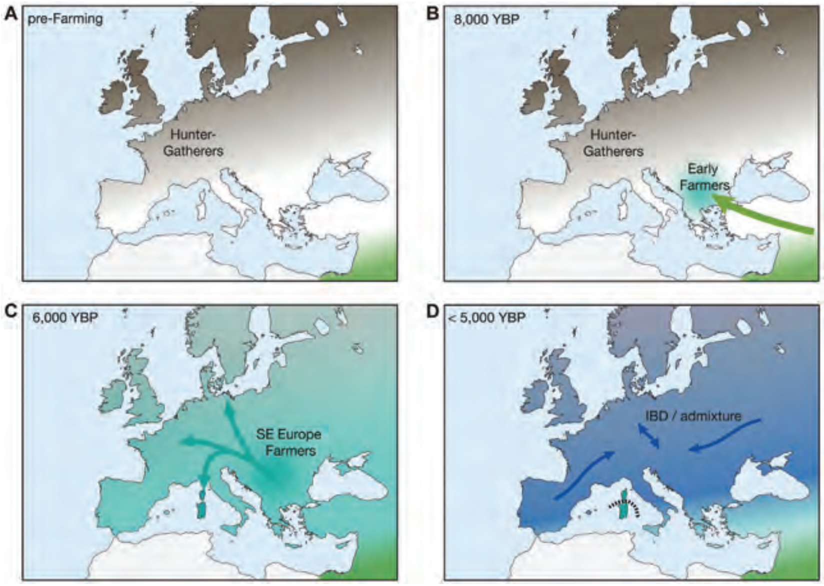
Genetic Evidence Shows Major Population Origins of White Race

The science of genetics has now firmly established the origin of what is today known as the white race, or indigenous European people.

Three studies in particular,[1] all of which analyzed genomes from skeletons dating from circa 8000 YBP to 4000 YBP, found that there were three major ancient population groups which created the present-day European population:

(a) "West European hunter-gatherers" (WHG), who contributed ancestry to all Europeans but not to Near Easterners. These are the original inhabitants of western Europe.

A GENETIC HISTORY OF THE PEOPLING OF EUROPE



This diagram presents a graphic demonstration of what the genetic evidence, as obtained from DNA analysis of ancient remains compared to present-day populations, shows about how Europe came to its current racial makeup. (A) "West European hunter-gatherers" (WHG) in Europe prior to 8,000 YBP. This includes the European division of the "Ancient north Eurasians" (ANE); (B) "Early European Farmers" (EFF) enter southeastern Europe; (C) The expansion of farming into central Europe; and (D) the arrival of the Indo-Europeans and their dominance in Europe after 5,000 YBP. (Adapted from "Figure 4. A simplified model for recent demographic history of Europeans," in "Population Genomic Analysis of Ancient and Modern Genomes Yields New Insights into the Genetic Ancestry of the Tyrolean Iceman and the Genetic Structure of Europe," Sikora, M., et al., PLOS Genetics, *May 8, 2014).*

This population group is the origin of the Y-DNA haplogroup I, which, in various subclades, is still a major part of European male DNA. Blue eye color also appears to have originated with this group, although the gene for that trait has been found in the Western Steppe Herders as well[2] (see below).

(b) "Ancient north Eurasians" (ANE), a group which was located in the Siberian region during the Upper Paleolithic period. Their genes diverged from a parent group and are found in both present-day Europeans and parts of the Middle East, and are most famously found in concentrated form in the "Tarim Basin mummies" of the Xinjiang region of western China.

The European male Y haplogroup R1a and R1b is the most commonly found variant in the European part of this population, but not in the Asian branch which diverted to the far east.

(c) Western Steppe Herders (WSH), carrying the R1b and R1a Y-Haplogroups, and also more correctly called "Indo-Europeans," who brought with them the dominant genes for light-colored skin and eyes. This WSH group appears to have nearly

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[1] "Ancient human genomes suggest three ancestral populations for present-day Europeans," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Nature,* 2014 Sep 18; 513(7518): 409–413; "Massive migration from the steppe was a source for Indo-European languages in Europe," Haak, W., et al., *Nature,* 2015 Jun 11; 522(7555): 207–211; and "The Genomic History of Southeastern Europe," Mathieson, I., et al., *Nature,* 2018 Mar 8; 555(7695): 197–203.

[2] Population genomics of Bronze Age Eurasia, Allentoft, M. E. et al., *Nature,* volume 522, pages 167–172 (2015).

CRO-MAGNON TYPE : AN EARLY PROTO-EUROPEAN

Left: The "Cro-Magnon 1" skull, discovered at the Abri de Cro-Magnon site in southern France, belongs to a male individual of about 40 years of age. It is dated to 27,680 YBP. (Musée de l'Homme, Paris). Right: A reconstruction of Cro-Magnon man, made by Professor J. H. McGregor from a skull found in the town of Cro-Magnon, Les Eyzies, France ("The Dawn of History: A Drama in Three Acts," Professor T.D.A. Cockerell, The American Museum Journal, *Volume XVII, New York, 1917).*

completely erased another group called "Early European Farmers" (EFF) who at one stage populated southeastern Europe.

Combination of Three Groups Created European Racial Types

These three major groups (the "WHG," the "ANE," and the "WSH") all carried with them the genes which created the present-day European people, or the white race. These genes included those which caused fair skin, and an assortment of eye colors ranging from blue to brown. In addition, they carried with them the genes for height, skull shape, skeletal structure, and a range of hair colors from very fair to dark brown.

Genetic studies undertaken on some of the more archaic skeletons dating from the Upper Paleolithic era also showed genes for darker skin, but it seems that these autosomal genes were either lost through natural selection or were otherwise brought to an end by the newer invaders. It is therefore only with the Upper Paleolithic and Neolithic periods that the story of the white race actually begins.

Cro-Magnon—Early White Racial Type

An early white racial type, whose complete skeletal and genetic record is now known, is called "Cro-Magnon" man (after the Abri de Cro-Magnon site in the Dordogne region of France where the first skeletal remains of that type were found). The age of Cro-Magnon man is dated at between 40,000 YBP and 15,000 YBP and is widely regarded as one of the "proto-European" racial types.

Certain physical characteristics of Cro-Magnon man, in particular the "deep-set eyes" or eyebrow ridge, can sometimes still be seen in present-day Europeans and is a genetic legacy from that time.

Controversy over Cheddar Man Reconstruction

One of the more famous Cro-Magnon skeletons was discovered in the Cheddar Gorge in England and is on display at the Human Origins Hall at the Natural History Museum, London, UK. Known as "Cheddar Man," DNA testing carried out in 1997 found that he still had living relatives in the area surrounding Cheddar Gorge. A 2018 genetic study[3] on Cheddar Man's remains evoked controversy by claiming that he had the genes for "blue eyes and black skin," despite also having the typically European Y-haplogroup ("I") and mtDNA-haplogroup ("U").

A reconstruction of Cheddar Man's face using this claim of "black skin" has now become the favored depiction of early Britons—even though it was readily admitted in the "Supplementary Material" of the genetic study in question that at least one important test locus was missing in the analyzed genetic material, and that the dark skin coloring was therefore only a "possible variation."[4]

This speculative conclusion was openly dismissed as inaccurate by other scientists, including some who took part in the study itself.[5]

The White Race—Five Subgroups, of Which Three are "Major"

The three major population groups that made up the genetic origin of the white race—as detailed above—have resulted in the differentiation of the present-day European peoples into five main subgroups, based on their physical appearance. Of these five main subgroups, three are regarded as "major." By "subgroup," what is meant is a branch of a particular race which exhibits slightly different physical characteristics but still shares enough of a common genetic inheritance with other subgroups to be included in a broad racial category. This is the concept of genetic commonality and is the basis of all racial categories.

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[3] "Ancient genomes indicate population replacement in Early Neolithic Britain", *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, Brace, S., et al. 2019, volume 3, pages 765–771.

[4] *Ibid,* "Supplementary Material," page 18.

[5] "Ancient 'dark-skinned' Briton Cheddar Man find may not be true," Colin Barras, *New Scientist,* 21 February 2018.

For example, it is often claimed that there is an African "black" or sub-Saharan race. While this is certainly true, there also exist a great number of major subgroups among that racial group. The existence of varying types such as the Congo basin Pygmies, the tall Masai tribesmen of eastern Africa's highlands, and the low-statured Bantu of central and southern Africa all serve as good examples of subgroups within the "black race."

Among the white race, the three major subgroups have been named "Nordic," "Alpine," and "Mediterranean."

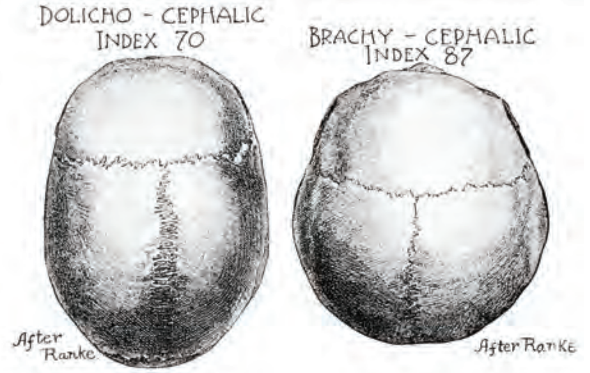
Although these names have come about mainly because of the geographic areas with which these subgroups have become associated (Nordics in northern Europe, Alpines in central Europe, and Mediterraneans in southern Europe), it is incorrect to believe that these groups always occupied these regions, or in fact that it can be conclusively shown that they originated in these regions.

The naming of these groups is therefore a matter of convenience, rather than any specific or scientific reference to origin. The Mediterranean subgroup in particular is not to be confused with those people loosely termed "Mediterranean" today who are found on the entire north and southern coastline of the Mediterranean Sea, .

There, particularly on what is today called the North African coast, the ancient white Mediterranean element has absorbed Semitic or African elements during the course of recorded history (as will be detailed later in this work).

It is thus slightly incongruous that the best examples of the Mediterranean white subgroup are in fact found in western Europe (centered in Ireland and spreading east), rather than southern Europe, and are the descendants of pre-Indo-European peoples.

CRANIAL INDEX AND SKULL SHAPE



An illustration of the difference between a cranial index of 70 and 87, as viewed from the top of the skull. (Illustration from MIT Professor William Z. Ripley's 1896 lecture "The Racial Geography of Europe," as published in Appletons' Popular Science Monthly, *March 1897).*

Cranial Indexes as a Measure of Race

The science of "cranial indexes" or "cephalic indexes" was developed by Swedish anatomy Professor Anders Retzius in 1842. This is a measurement of the skull, calculated by the ratio made up of the skull's width (measured side to side), multiplied by 100, and then divided by its length (measured from front to back).

The figures that result from this calculation provide an accurate idea of the skull shape of the individual concerned. These figures vary according to race and sex. A cranial index of less than 75 for females and 75.9 for males gives a "dolichocephalic" (or "long-headed") appearance.

A cranial index of 75.1 to 83 for females and 76 to 81 for males gives a "mesocephalic" (or "medium-headed") appearance. A cranial index greater than 83.1 for females and 81.1 for males gives a "brachycephalic" (or "short-headed") appearance.

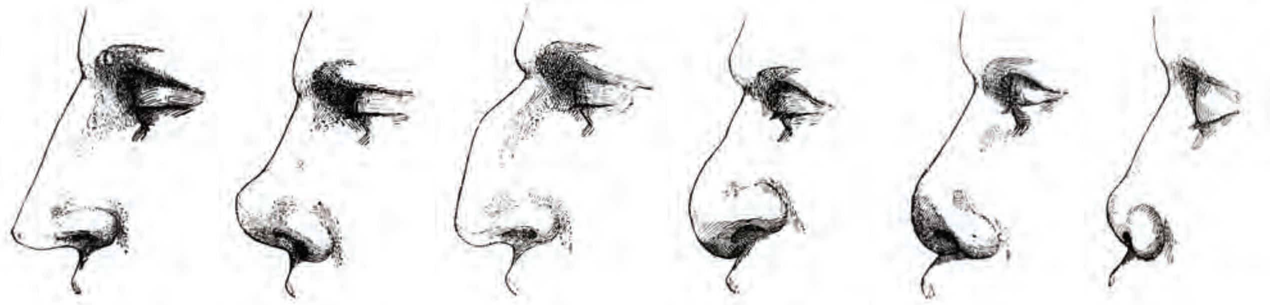
While there is little doubt that cranial indexes can provide an accurate initial assessment of race, individuals of mixed racial ancestry have always presented cranio-archeology with an estimation problem.

Modern DNA analysis has therefore superseded cranial measurements as the final word on racial origin.

Nasal Indexes as a Measure of Race

The French anthropologist Paul Topinard (1830–1911) developed what he called the nasal in-

NASAL SHAPE IN WHITE SUBGROUPS AND OTHER RACES



French anthropologist Paul Topinard's 1885 work, Éléments d'anthropologie générale, *illustrated six racial and subgroup types of nasal index: (1) Nordic ("hyperleptorrhine, leptorrhine"); (2) Alpine ("mesorrhine"); (3) Mediterranean ("leptorrhine"); (4) Asiatic ("platyrrhine"); (5) Negroid ("platyrrhine"); and (6) Australoid (Aborigine) ("platyrrhine"). Source:* Éléments d'anthropologie générale, *Topinard, P., publishers A. Delahaye et É. Lecrosnier, Paris, 1885, page 298.*

dex as a method of classifying ethnic groups. This is calculated from the ratio of the breadth of the nose to its height. There are five major categories of nasal index:

"Hyperleptorrhine," which is a very long, narrow nose with a nasal index of 40 to 55; Typically Nordic European.

"Leptorrhine," which is a long, narrow nose with an index of 55–70; Typically Nordic and Mediterranean European.

"Mesorrhine," which is a medium nose with an index of 70–85; Typically Alpine European; and

"Platyrrhine," which is a short, broad nose with an index of 85–99.9; Typically African, Asian and Australoid.

Unexpected variations in the nasal index are one of the clearest markers of mixed racial types.

The Three Major White Racial Types Defined

Having established the genetic origins of the white race and the diverse genetic patterns that established its three major subgroups, it is valuable to define each of these three groups in detail.

Nordic—Tall, Light Eyes and Hair

The Nordic racial subgroup is characterized by a dolichocephalic or "long" skull, tall stature, fair skin, with blond, light brown, or red hair and light-colored eyes. Nasal index is hyperleptorrhine or leptorrhine.

Alpine—Medium Height, Brown Eyes and Hair

The Alpine racial subgroup is characterized by a medium stature, a mesocephalic or "round" skull, and brown eyes and hair. Nasal index is mesorrhine.

Mediterranean—Short, Dark Hair and Eyes

The Mediterranean subgroup is characterized by a mesocephalic, or "round" skull shape, brown eyes and dark brown hair, and a short stature. Nasal index is leptorrhine in nature.

Other Subgroups—Dinarics and East Baltics

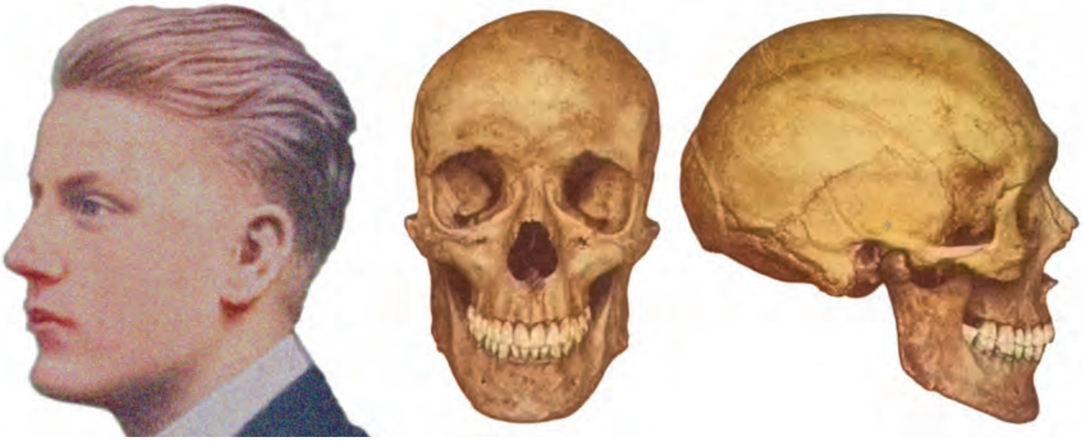
Two other white racial subgroups exist, known formerly as Dinarics and East Baltics, found in large numbers in present-day Eastern Europe. These types differ slightly in skull shape and body dimensions from the three main groups outlined above, but they share a great number of physical characteristics, such as hair and eye color. A small number of these groups also show admixture from invading Asiatics, as detailed later in this work.

As is the case with the three major white subgroups, there has been a considerable amount of intermixture with each other, with the result that the majority of Europeans alive today have varying degrees of ancestry from these three major groups.

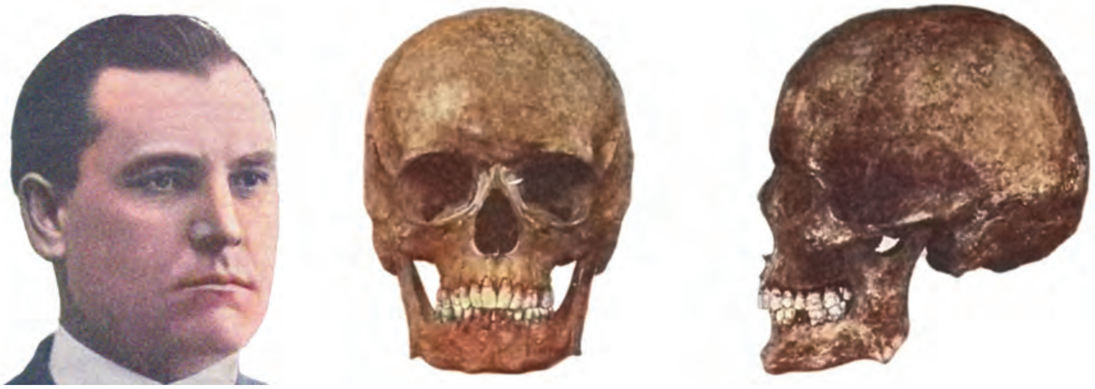
This means that it is possible to find blue-eyed, long skulled "Alpines" and "Mediterraneans," brown-eyed "Nordics" and various other combinations. Green eyes, for example, result from an admixture of the genes for blue and brown eyes.

In addition to these major groups, there are a large number of subdivisions within each group, such as "Celtic Nordic," "Hallstatt," and so on. However, for the purposes of this book, only the three major groupings of *Nordic, Alpine,* and *Mediterranean* are going to be used, as they are the most commonly understood, and will not overly complicate the narrative.

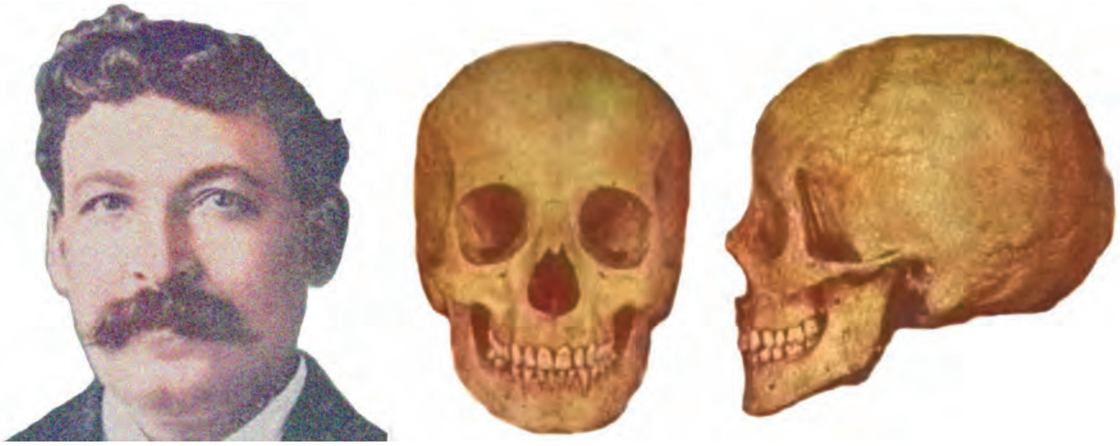
THE WHITE RACE— **THE THREE MAIN SUBGROUPS**



Nordic—The skull of a member of the Nordic white sub-race, viewed from the front and the side. The "long," or dolichocephalic, nature of the facial structure is clearly visible. Alongside is a classic Nordic male from Sweden. Eye color in pure Nordics ranges from very light to dark blue, while hair color is light.



Alpine—The skull of a member of the Alpine white sub-race, viewed from the front and the side. The mesocephalic, or medium skull shape, is apparent. Alongside is a classic Alpine male from southern Germany. Eye color in pure Alpines is brown, while hair color is brunette.



Mediterranean—A skull of a member of the Mediterranean white sub-race, viewed from the front and side. Alongside, an example of an original Mediterranean. The stature, eye, and hair color in pure Mediterraneans is always dark brown, but not black. In the present-day "Mediterranean" nations, many original Mediterranean types show admixture with other European types.

Chapter 4: First Stirrings—the Upper Paleolithic Age

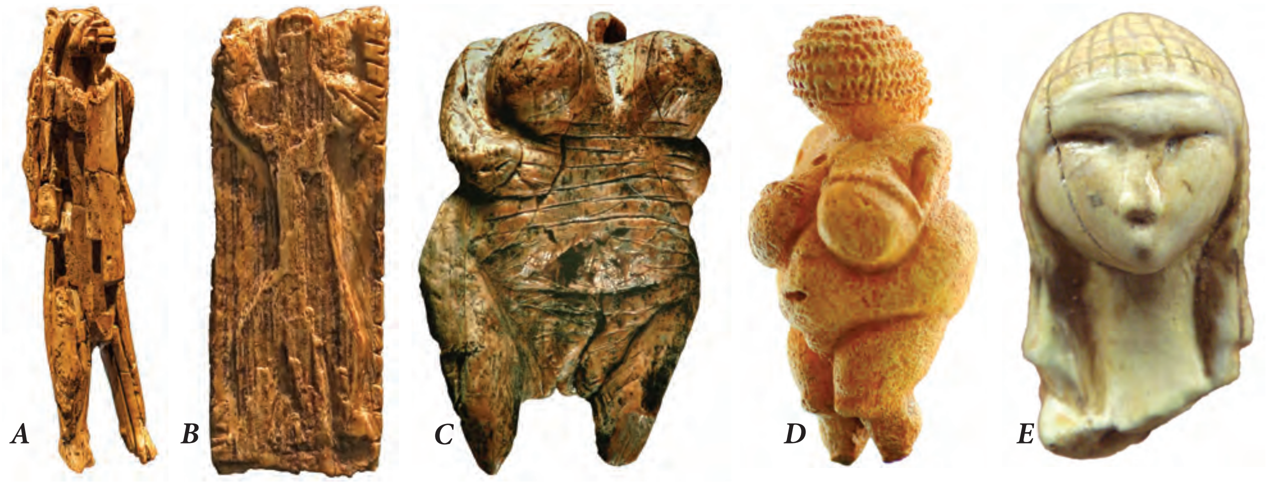
What is known as the "Paleolithic Era" is, in fact, clearly divisible into three main phases, called the Lower, Middle, and Upper Paleolithic. The Lower Paleolithic period runs from approximately 1.4 million years ago to around 300,000 years before present (YBP), while the Middle Paleolithic runs from 300,000 YBP to around 50,000 YBP.

These first two periods are the eras of the homo erectus and Neanderthal types respectively, and it is only with the time of the Upper Paleolithic period, from 50,000 YBP to 10,000 YBP, that anatomically modern human beings, or homo sapiens ("wise man"), emerged. It is therefore only with the Upper Paleolithic period that the first true white racial types emerged, concentrated in what is today western Europe. In that regard, it should be noted that the Upper Paleolithic period also experienced massive climate change, which drastically altered the geography, lifestyle, fauna, and flora of the continent.

Genetics Revolutionizes Understanding of the Upper Paleolithic Era

Previously, what was known about the Paleolithic era was determined from an evaluation of archaeological, geological sites, and human (an-

41,000–25,000 YBP: THE WORLD'S OLDEST SCULPTURES, ALL FOUND IN WESTERN EUROPE



From left to right: (A) The oldest sculpture in the world, called the Lion Man ("Der Löwenmensch"), was found in the Stadel Cave in the Swabian Alps, Baden-Württemberg, Germany, in 1939. Made of mammoth ivory, its antiquity was only determined by carbon dating in 2003, which found that it was made between 41,000 and 39,000 Years Before Present (YBP). (Museum Ulm, Baden-Württemberg). (B) The oldest carving in the world representing a human figure is the "Adorant," found in the Geissenklösterle Cave in the Swabian Alps, Baden-Württemberg, Germany, in 1979. Made of mammoth ivory, the carving shows a human figure with raised arms, a posture that led to it being called in German an "adorant," or "worshiper." (Landesmuseum Württemberg, Stuttgart, Baden-Württemberg). (C) The "Venus of Hohle Fels" is the oldest such figure yet discovered. Found in a cave near Schelklingen, Baden-Württemberg, Germany, in 2008, it is carved out of mammoth ivory and has been dated between 40,000 and 35,000 YBP. (D) The Venus of Willendorf, discovered in 1908 near the Austrian village of Willendorf, Lower Austria. Carved of limestone, it has been dated to around 24,000 YBP. (Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna). (E) The Venus of Brassempouy, an ivory figurine from Brassempouy, France. Dated to more than 25,000 YBP, it is one of the earliest realistic representations of a human face. (Musée des Antiquités Nationales, Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France).

thropological) remains. Traditionally, the determination of racial types from this time period was exclusively reliant upon the study of the relatively scarce number of racially identifiable skeletal remains. As the number of remains available for study is still only numbered in the hundreds, this was a science which, by the scarcity of its resource materials, was accepted as being largely speculative.

It was also presumed that because of the relative uniformity of the cultural artifacts (cave art, flints, stone works, and so on) from this ancient period, there had been a large degree of genetic uniformity among Paleolithic populations, especially those of the European subcontinent. This view has now been proven incorrect.

Genetics Reveals European/Central Asian Geographical Divide

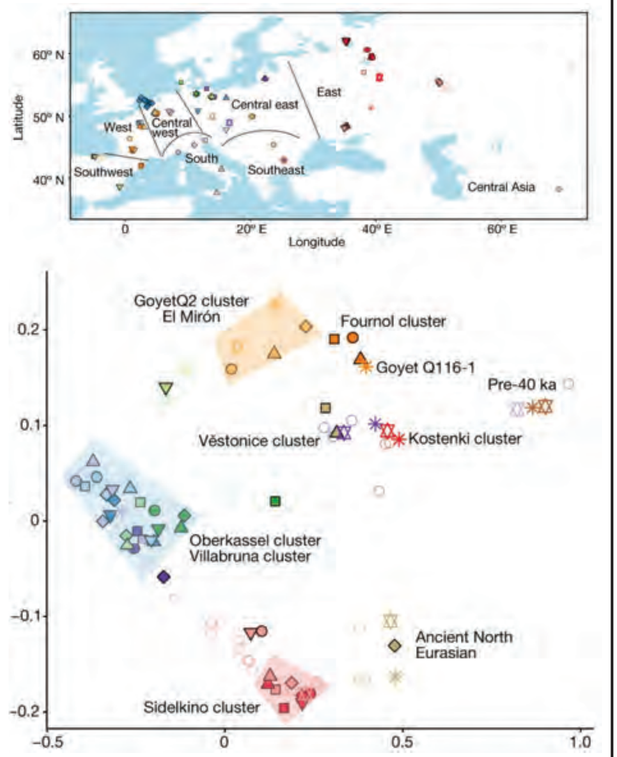
During the first two decades of the 21st century, technological advances in the science of genetics have allowed the scientific analysis of ancient remains. In addition, it also became possible to collect and analyze DNA residue at ancient sites, and this has led to a revolution in the understanding of the racial history of the Upper Paleolithic Era in Europe.

Contrary to the earlier belief that there was a genetic uniformity in Europe at this time, the study of ancient genetics has shown that the Paleolithic population of Europe was far more clearly divided, with a distinct cline from west to east—with the furthest eastern groups displaying majority Central Asian genetics.

Two DNA studies released in 2023,[1] which together analyzed DNA data gathered from 357 Paleolithic sites, found at least eight different racially-identifiable genetic clusters, with only two surviving in any significant form—one being found in present-day Europeans, and another being found in central Asiatics.

These eight groups have been given the names of the sites where they were found. These include the “Fournol” cluster in France, the “Vestonice” cluster in the Czech Republic, the “GoyetQ2 El Miron” and the “Goyet Q116-1,” clusters in Spain, the “Villabruna” cluster in Italy, the “Oberkassel” cluster in Germany, the “Kostenki” and “Sidelkino” clusters in Russia, and an “Ancient North Eurasian” cluster, located in eastern Europe.

THE GENETICS OF ANCIENT EUROPE



The genetics of Palaeolithic Europe is revealed in this graphic, which represents DNA clusters at the various sites where skeletal remains have been found. In simplified format, there is a clear division between eastern and western Europe, with the eastern part showing a greater central Asiatic input. Many of the genetic clusters have since become extinct, and those which survived split into European and Asian groups. (Fig. 1: Locations, dates, and MDS plot of ancient Eurasian hunter-gatherers. “Palaeogenomics of Upper Palaeolithic to Neolithic European hunter-gatherers,” Posth, C., et al., 2023, Nature *615, 117–126).*

Only the Oberkassel, Villabruna, and both Goyet clusters show a majority of Y and mtDNA haplogroups found in modern Europeans (specifically mtDNA haplogroup U and Y-chromosome haplogroup I).

All of the others show either a minority of European haplogroups; significant Central Asian

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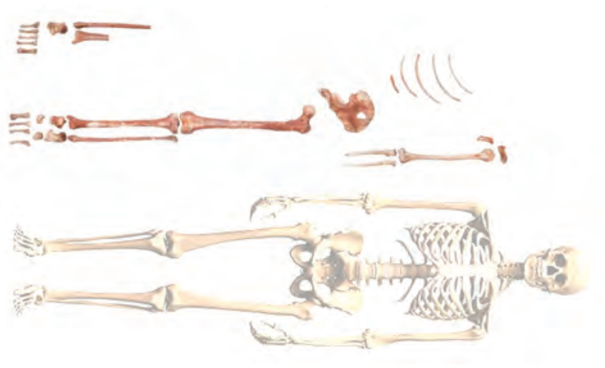
[1] “Palaeogenomics of Upper Palaeolithic to Neolithic European hunter-gatherers,” Posth, C., et al., *Nature* 615, 117–126 (2023); and “A 23,000-year-old southern Iberian individual links human groups that lived in Western Europe before and after the Last Glacial Maximum,” Villalba-Mouco, V., et al., *Nature Ecology & Evolution,* 7, 597–609 (2023).

RED LADY OF PAVILAND 33,000 YBP



One of the oldest Paleolithic skeletal remains yet discovered is the "Red Lady of Paviland," dated to 33,000 YBP. The actual remains are shown at the top of the illustration, with a complete skeleton image below for comparison.

haplogroups (particularly the Y-haplogroup C1, a derivation of which also occurs in the present-day Sami, or "Lapp" population of northern Scandinavia); or other now-extinct genetic types.

The genetic evidence has therefore finally clarified the racial makeup of Paleolithic Europe: it was heavily penetrated in the eastern parts by Central Asiatics, and not, as previously presumed, a genetically homogeneous European racial stock.

Oldest European Skeleton Parts 46,000 YBP

A study carried out in 2011 identified a fragment of an upper human jaw (a maxilla) from the Kents Cavern site in Britain as dating from around 46,000 YBP, making it one of the oldest human remains yet found in Europe.[2] The study did not involve DNA testing, but, given the location of the find, it may very well be the oldest European remains ever discovered.

In 1823, a partial skeleton was discovered in Wales and became known as the "Red Lady of Paviland." Despite its name, the skeleton belonged to a male, and one of some standing, as the bones had been coated in red ocher and buried ceremoniously. Soon after the partial skeleton's discovery in the Goat's Hole Cave near Swansea, South Wales, its antiquity was realized. It was not, however, until 2008 that radiocarbon-dating techniques showed that the bones are around 33–34,000 years old.

Neanderthals Extinguished 42,000 YBP

Perhaps the most significant racial event of the Upper Paleolithic period was the extinction of the Neanderthals, a race which had populated Europe for at least the previous 100,000 years.

It is still a matter of debate what exactly caused the Neanderthals to die out, but it was likely a combination of conflict with the technologically superior newcomers and absorption.[3] Whatever the cause, Neanderthals disappeared from the racial timeline about 42,000 YBP.

Upper Paleolithic Cultural Time Periods

Although the racial composition of Upper Paleolithic Europe has now been determined to be diverse, the cultural artifacts recovered at various sites around the continent share varying degrees of similarity, based on what has so far been uncovered.

For this reason, it is helpful to still refer to the cultural time periods used previously, with the caveat that analysis of the few hundred remaining skeletal records indicates that only in western and parts of central Europe did proto-Europeans appear to form the majority of the population.

Aurignacian Period: Oldest Upper Paleolithic Culture

The oldest identified Upper Paleolithic culture is called Aurignacian and has been broadly dated as lasting from 42,000 YBP to around 20,000 YBP. The Aurignacian period is characterized by the European continent's oldest paintings, engravings, and other cultural artifacts made of stone and bone.

These artifacts include the earliest musical instruments in the world. Flutes, which, remarkably, can still be played, have been found in the Swabian Alb region of Germany, dating to at least 37,000 YBP.

Other dramatic finds in the Swabian German region include the Lion Man ("Der Löwenmensch"), which is the world's oldest sculpture ever found, dating from 39,000 YBP; the "Adorant," which is the oldest carving in the world representing a human figure; and the "Venus of Hohle Fels," which is the oldest human figure carving ever discovered.[4]

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[2] "The earliest evidence for anatomically modern humans in northwestern Europe," Higham, T., *Nature,* volume 479, pages 521–524 (2011).

[3] With regard to the absorption of Neanderthals into other populations, it is significant that the only modern racial group which does not possess any Neanderthal genes at all, are sub-Saharan Africans. This indicates a complete physical separation between the latter race and all others at a very early stage in history.

Pictographic "Writing" From Europe 40,000 YBP

A 2023 study by scientists at the United Kingdom's Cambridge University[5] revealed that in a survey of over 400 Paleolithic cave paintings of animals in Western Europe, they had identified three signs— a line "|", a dot "•", and a shape "Y"—which repeatedly appear close to certain animal types in these cave paintings.

The repeated use of these three signs in a patterned format is, on the face of it, an indication that they meant something, as it would be unlikely that so many paintings over such a large area (from present-day Portugal to central Europe) would randomly have the same markings. If this is the case, then these signs would represent the earliest pictographic form of writing in the world.

The Cambridge scientists speculated that the "|" and "•" constitute numbers denoting months, and that the "Y" sign, which is one of the most frequently occurring signs in Paleolithic non-figurative art, has the meaning "to give birth."

Oldest Cave Paintings 32,000 YBP

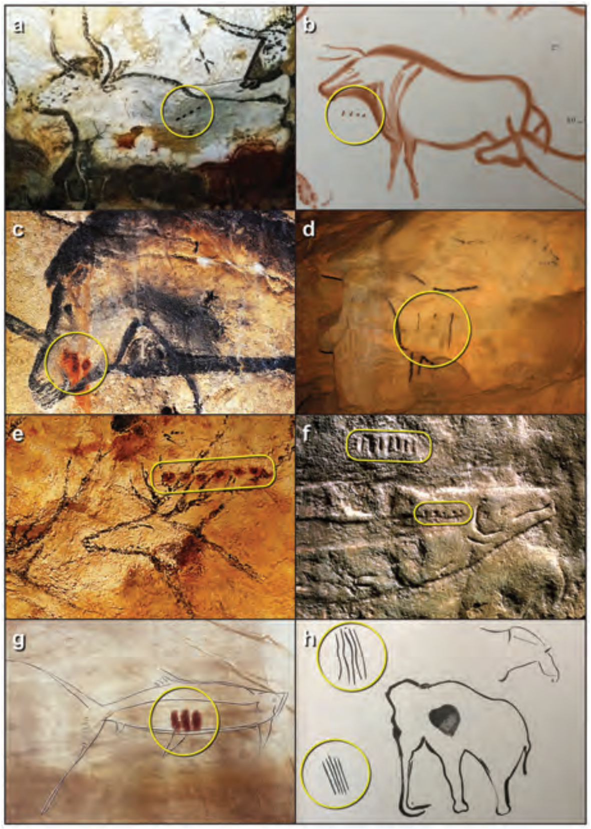
Dating of cave paintings has always proven problematic due to the contamination of many such sites over the millennia, but carbon dating of the paint used, and artifacts found in these caves, has revealed that the oldest known such paintings are those of Chauvet Cave in France, dating from at least 32,000 YBP.

The Chauvet cave paintings are remarkable in that they show an extremely high level of artistic skill and a deep level of anatomical understanding of the 13 different species of animals depicted, including horses, aurochs, mammoths, cave lions, leopards, bears, hyenas, and rhinoceroses.

Gravettian Culture 33,000 YBP to 22,000 YBP

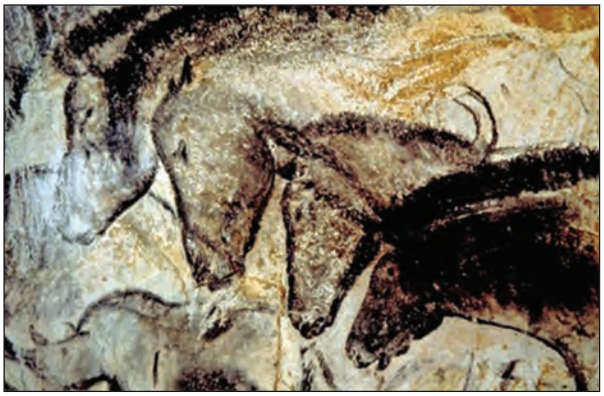
The Gravettian culture describes a Paleolithic era leading up to the Last Glacial Maximum

EARLY PICTOGRAPHIC SIGNS 40,0000 YBP



Examples of repeated depictions with the "|" and "•" signs: (a) Bison, Lascaux, southwest France; (b) La Pasiega, north Spain; (c) horse, Chauvet, southeast France; (d) horse, Mayenne-Sciences, northwest France; (e) Red Deer, Lascaux; (f) salmon, Abri du Poisson, southwest France; (g) salmon, Cueva de El Pindal, north Spain; (h) mammoth, Cueva de El Pindal. From the Cambridge Archaeological Journal, *2023.*

HORSES IN EUROPE, CIRCA 30,000 BC



The oldest cave paintings in Europe (circa 30,000 BC) were discovered in 1994 at the Chauvet-Pont-d'Arc Cave, Ardèche department, France.

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[4] The "Venus" figures are so named not for any religious reason, but rather after the Roman Goddess of love, beauty, sex, and fertility. The "Venus" figures are always female forms, with exaggerated bodily characteristics, and are presumed to have some sort of social significance because of their prevalence in Paleolithic sites across Europe.

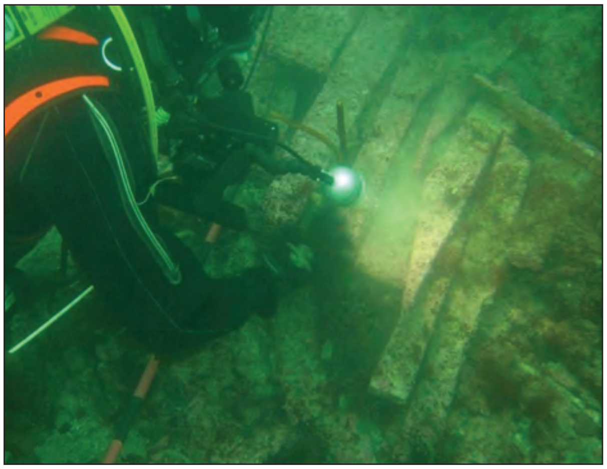
[5] "An Upper Palaeolithic Proto-writing System and Phenological Calendar," Bacon, B, et al., *Cambridge Archaeological Journal,* Cambridge University Press, 2023-01-05.

OLDEST MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, 40,000 YBP

Above: One of the world's oldest flutes is known as the Hohle Fels Flute, named after the cave in Baden-Württemberg, Germany, where it was discovered in 2009. It is around 40,000 years old, made of a Griffon vulture wing bone, and sounds almost identical to a modern flute. (Tubingen University, Germany).

Above, from left to right, 30,000 YBP musical instruments: A bone flute from Isturitz, Dordogne, France; a Bullroarer made of reindeer antler, Lalinde, Dordogne; and a Scraper from Mas d'Azil, Ariège. A bullroarer is played by attaching it to a long cord and swinging it around in circles above the "player." It produces a vibrating sound that can be heard a long distance away. A scraper is, as its name suggests, scraped against a surface to produce a rasping sound.

DOGGERLAND: MAN-BUILT STRUCTURES AT THE BOTTOM OF THE NORTH SEA



Divers inspect man-made structures discovered at the bottom of the North Sea, 2012.

(LGM), a period when the polar ice sheets reached their greatest extent, before climate change eroded them back toward the poles, about 22,000 YBP. During the LGM, the ice sheets caused aridification, desertification, extreme cold temperatures, and a dramatic drop in sea levels—all of which was reversed as the earth's temperature increased once again.

"Doggerland" and other Submerged Sites

When it is considered that sea levels at the time were around 360 to 390 feet (110 to 120 meters) lower than what they are at present, it is likely that many settlements and sites of archaeological interest are now submerged, and unable to be viewed.

The existence of such structures was confirmed in 2012 when a joint study between three British university archaeological departments, in cooperation with North Sea oil exploration companies, found human-built structures on the bottom of the North Sea, located in what became known as "Doggerland," the area between present-day England and Denmark.

Archaeologists recovered evidence of dry-land life such as mammoth and reindeer fossils, fossilized tree stumps, and even pieces of flint used by humans as tools. In addition, human-built structures such as walls, standing stones, and mounds surrounded by ditches were identified and mapped out.

The confirmed existence of these mysterious structures has served to boost long-existent theories about the far northern origins of European, and specifically Nordic, civilization. As tantalizing as these theories may be, further detailed underwater exploration is needed before any final conclusions may be drawn on this topic.

Gravettian Culture Noted for Technology

Named after the Paleolithic site at La Gravette in southwestern France, the Gravettian culture is best known for its Venus figurines and its increased use of hunting technology, such as nets and stone oil lamps.

This period produced some of the most famous "Venus" figures, including the "Venus of Willendorf," discovered in present-day Austria, which is dated from 24,000 YBP; and the "Venus of Brassempouy," which is the earliest realistic representation of a human face, found in France, and has

17,000 YEAR-OLD ART AT LASCAUX, FRANCE

The caves at Lascaux in southwestern France feature famous Paleolithic wall paintings. The images are 17,000 years old and consist of images of large animals, many of which have since become extinct.

been dated to more than 25,000 YBP. The end of the LGM and rising meltwaters marked the end of the Gravettian culture. In Western Europe, the Gravettian culture was succeeded by the Solutrean, and elsewhere in Europe, it developed into the Epigravettian Culture.

Solutrean Culture Marks High Point of Paleolithic Stonework

Taking its name from the "Crôt du Charnier" site in Solutré-Pouilly, southwestern France, the era of the Solutrean Culture is marked out as from 22,000 to 17,000 YBP. The stone tools and implements found here indicated a sophisticated level of technological skill. Many of the "leaf-shaped" blades so typical of Solutrean Culture, their makers developed a technique known as "pressure flaking," which involves the use of heat-treated flint to make the stone more workable. Solutrean rock art is also famous for its engraved pictographs and stone friezes, which, due to its very nature, were far more permanent than cave painting. Some of the more famous such rock friezes include the animal sculptures found at Roc de Sers, southwestern France. These spectacular carvings are the work of highly skilled craftsmen, and not of "primitive cavemen."

SOLUTREAN ROCK ART, 19,000 YBP

One of the most famous Solutrean rock sculptures depicts a horse on the left and a boar on the right. (Musée d'Archeologie Nationale et Domaine, St-Germain-en-Laye, France).

Solutrean Cave Painting, 19,000 YBP

The world-famous cave paintings of Lascaux, near Montignac, southwestern France, also date from the Solutrean period. These paintings—over 600 of them—make up one of the most spectacular and colorful representations of animal life from the period, and show many creatures now extinct (and whose existence was only confirmed by fossil records).

The Mas-d'Azil Treasures, 18,000 YBP

The cave of Mas-d'Azil is a long natural cave created by the Arize River in the Ariege Pyrenees,

THE TREASURES OF MAS-D'AZIL, 18,000 YBP

Perhaps the most famous work of Azilian art is this sculpture of a horse's head, carved on a reindeer antler. (Musée d'archéologie nationale, Saint-Germain-en-Laye).

A spear thrower made of reindeer antler, decorated with a beautiful doe. A spear thrower consists of a rod with a projection at the rear end to hold the weapon in place until its release. By making use of the lever principle, the device gives greater velocity and force to the spear. (Le Musée National de Préhistoire, Les Eyzies-de-Tayac).

southwestern France. Exploration of the cave complex has resulted in a treasure trove of finds from the Solutrean era, to the point where the artifacts have been named as a subculture on their own, known as "Azilian."

Some of the more famous Azilian objects include decorated spear throwers, carved ivory and sperm whale teeth, stone horse heads, and numerous other wonders too plentiful to list here. These objects, all perfectly preserved, are all indicative of a higher culture, and one of the objects, a deer-decorated spear thrower, was evidently highly popular as dozens of later replicas have been found at other adjacent ancient sites.

End of the Upper Paleolithic Age

The Epigravettian era emerged contemporaneously with the Solutrean culture, and because of its similarities to the earlier Gravettian culture, it is regarded as an extension thereof. The Epigravettian era is deemed to have ended around 10,000 YBP with the emergence of the Mesolithic era, also called the "Middle Stone Age." This was a bridging period between the Upper Paleolithic and the Neolithic era, and marked the end of the hunter-gatherer culture in Europe and the creation of the first large urban settlements. The Neolithic Era is, therefore, the next great time period which must be considered.

EUROPEAN TYPES COME TO DOMINATE

A 14,000-year-old skull from the "Oberkassel cluster." These racial types later came to dominate all of Europe by the end of the Upper Paleolithic period. The Oberkassel cluster DNA is completely European. (LVR-LandesMuseum, Bonn, Germany).

European Racial Types Become Dominant

For reasons that are still definitively unknown, but which are likely to be linked to an increase in numbers (due to urbanization), warfare, and conventional expansion, the Epigravettian era also saw the expansion of European racial types into almost all of the regions of southern and eastern Europe that had previously been dominated by non-European groups.

In this manner, for example, a 2016 genetic study of the remains of an Epigravettian male skeleton from Ripari Villabruna in Italy found the paternal haplogroup R1b1 and the maternal haplogroup U5b—all distinctly European types.[6] In contrast, a similar study carried out on an Epigravettian era skeleton found in the Satsurblia Cave in Georgia, found Semitic paternal (J2) and maternal (K3) haplogroups.[7]

Another study found that the Western Hunter-Gatherers (WHGs) "were populations associated with the Epigravettian culture" and had come to dominate most of Europe.[8]

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[6] "The genetic history of Ice Age Europe," Fu, Q., et al., *Nature.* 2016 Jun 9; 534(7606): 200–205.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] "Palaeogenomics of Upper Palaeolithic to Neolithic European hunter-gatherers," Posth, C., et al., *Nature* 615, 117–126 (2023).

Chapter 5: A Giant Leap Forward—the Neolithic Age

At the end of the Upper Paleolithic period, most of Europe was dominated by the "Western Hunter-Gatherer" (WHG) racial types (characterized by the European Y-Haplogroups I and R, and the mtDNA Haplogroups U and its subclades). This racial balance was, however, to be disturbed once again by the Neolithic Period, which started approximately 12,000 Years Before Present (YBP), and ended around 4000 YBP.

The Neolithic Period was characterized by the movement of early farmers into Europe from Anatolia—that is, present-day eastern Turkey. These newcomers were characterized by the Y-Haplogroup G2a (and subclades), and a number of Haplogroups from the WHG population. Today, Y-Haplogroup G2a still exists in a minority of Europeans, and is now centralized in the Middle East.

These G2a types were in turn displaced by Indo-European invaders from the Russian Steppes, a movement which brought the Neolithic period to an end.

Whatever the genetics of the early Neolithic period and the introduction of farming might be, the reality remains that once agriculture had spread to all of Europe, that continent, under the leadership of its now settled Upper Paleolithic group, and then aided by the Indo-European invasions, created a civilization marked by remarkable advancements in architecture, technology, and social organization, and laid the foundation for all later European civilization.

Hunter-Gatherers Become Agricultural

The turning point upon which the period is based is the transformation from a hunter-gatherer lifestyle to settled agricultural communities. This change occurred in fits and starts in the present-day Middle East and in Europe, and the timing of the events in these two regions is not coincidental.

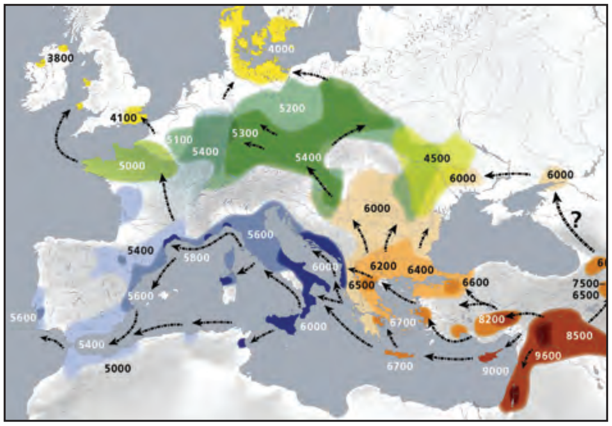
In Europe, archaeological excavations have revealed that the oldest farms date from around 9000 YBP in northern Greece, a development which puts the agricultural revolution on par with that traditionally associated with the Fertile Crescent of the Middle East.

The creation of large, fixed settlements led to the shift from a food-gathering community to that of a food-cultivating society, and the appearance of crops and the domestication of animals became features of their way of life. A regular and continuous food supply created by the establishment of farming meant that bigger populations could live in settled, more secure areas, and this marked the first time that the luxury of non-food-producing professions within society became possible.

Link Between Climate Change and Expansion of Farming in Europe

There is also a clear link between climate change and the expansion of farming throughout Europe. The end of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM)—which saw the last ice sheets start retreating from

AGRICULTURE AND CLIMATE CHANGE



The spread of agriculture is presented in shaded time periods from western Eurasia following the warming process in the European climate. Genetic testing of early Neolithic farmers in Europe showed that they were a mixture of Middle Eastern and Upper Paleolithic European populations, but the Middle Eastern segment of the population was almost completely displaced by the end of the Neolithic Era by the arrival of the Indo-Europeans. (Map: Gronenborn/Horejs/Börner/Ober 2021.2 (RGZM/ÖAI), Leibniz-Zentrum für Archäologie).

LONGHOUSE RECONSTRUCTION 7000 YBP, AUSTRIA

Above left: A 2012 reconstruction of a 7000 YBP Longhouse, based on archaeological research in central Europe, is displayed at the Museum of Prehistory in Asparn an der Zaya, Lower Austria. The building is held together with a complex system of mortise and tenon joints, and was designed to spread the load of the roof in such a way that the center of the house would have had few or no supporting pillars, allowing for a large communal area. Above right: the reconstruction during its building stage, showing the structural elements (Urgeschichtemuseum, MAMUZ, Asparn an der Zaya).

almost all of northern Europe only towards the end of the Upper Paleolithic Era—saw a rise in temperature which allowed land to become arable. The process of farming would then have been slow to expand north: firstly, the population would have had to increase proportionally to fill the newly viable territory, and then farms would have had to be established after large-scale northward migration.

In this way, for example, the oldest evidence of agriculture in Ireland—one of the more out-of-the-way regions to reach—can be found at the Céide Fields, County Mayo, in the far northwest of that island nation, and dates from 6000 YBP.

There is little question that farming as a survival technique moved into Europe from Anatolia, or present-day Turkey, around 8000 YBP. The earliest agricultural settlement yet discovered in Europe is to be found in the region of Thrace, in northern Greece, and dates to around that time period.

Genetic Impact of Agricultural Transfer

The real question to be answered over this transference of the culture of farming is, however, to what extent there was any genetic or racial change in the make-up of the population which introduced these changes. The answer has been provided by modern archaeogenetic testing, which has allowed DNA extraction from ancient remains.

In this way, it was revealed that the Anatolian incomers were eventually absorbed into the already existing European populations, to the point where traces of this ancient Anatolian DNA can still be found in certain southeastern European nations.

A 2016 study[1] on the ancient remains of four individuals from the Zagros region of present-day Iran, taken as representative of the farmers of the early Neolithic Fertile Crescent, showed that they were "not ancestral to early European farmers, and their genetic structures did not contribute significantly to those of present-day Europeans." This study added that the data indicates "a parallel Neolithic transition probably resulted from structured farming populations across southwest Asia,"—in other words, that the *initial* transfer of the agriculture society was purely societal, and not genetic in origin.

Anatolian Early Farmers Shared European Upper Paleolithic Genes

This transfer process only changed when it reached Anatolia (present-day eastern Turkey), where, for the first time, the actual farmers moved into southeastern Europe. Even then, many of

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[1] "Early Neolithic genomes from the eastern Fertile Crescent," Broushaki, F., et al., *Science,* 14 Jul 2016, Vol 353, Issue 6298, pp. 499–503.

WORLD'S OLDEST MAN MADE STRUCTURE: BARMENEZ CAIRN, FRANCE, 6800 YBP

The Cairn of Barnenez, located near Plouezoc'h in France's Brittany region, is reputed to be one of the oldest man-made structures in the world, dating from around 6800 YBP. A tomb complex, it is 240 feet (72 meters) long, over 80 feet (25 meters) wide, and 26 feet (8 meters) high. Created with around 14,000 tons of stone, it contains 11 chambers, all of which are reached by internal passages.

these farmers, known as "Early European Farmers" or "EEF," carried genetic markers of the Upper Paleolithic European population.

A 2014 study[2] on the remains of 8000 YBP skeletons in Germany, Luxembourg, and Sweden found that "Early European Farmers (EEF), who were mainly of Near Eastern origin but also harbored [West European Hunter-Gatherers] WHG-related ancestry"—in other words, they shared genetic similarity with Upper Paleolithic European populations.

Another genetic study of 44 ancient Near Eastern remains, whose ages ranged between 14,000 YBP and 3400 YBP, published in 2016,[3] revealed that the Anatolian-related farmers had mixed "with the hunter–gatherers of Europe to greatly reduce genetic differentiation" and their impact "spread westward into Europe."

In Y-DNA haplogroup terms, the haplogroup G2a is most commonly associated with the Anatolian movement into Europe. Small traces of this haplogroup can still be found throughout Europe, and some notable individuals have been found to have this haplogroup, but, as a general rule, it was almost completely obliterated in the European gene pool as a result of the Indo-European invasions which followed the end of the Neolithic Era. Today, haplogroup G and its subclades are far more common in the Middle East than in Europe.[4]

As a general rule, therefore, the cultivation of edible plants and the domestication of animals were commonplace all over Europe and the Middle East by 7000 YBP.

Europe Technologically Advanced Over Rest of the World by 7000 YBP

While farming naturally had a major impact upon society, technological skills, and ultimately, metalworking set the Neolithic culture in Europe apart from the rest of the world.

The existence of a highly advanced civilization on the European continent—which predates the advanced civilizations anywhere else in the world—was, for a long time, ignored because of the focus placed upon the Middle East by traditional history writers, particularly those who wrote during the dominant Christian era in Europe. This was largely because of a biblical Judeo-Christian bias which held that all civilization started in the Middle East (the biblical Old Testament deals exclusively with events in the Middle East, and it was claimed that the "Garden of Eden," and thus the creation place of man, was in that region).

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[2] "Ancient human genomes suggest three ancestral populations for present-day Europeans," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Nature*. 2014 Sep. 18; 513(7518): 409–413.

[3] "Genomic insights into the origin of farming in the ancient Near East," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Nature* volume 536, pages 419–424 (2016).

[4] Famous individuals whose DNA results showed the G2a Y-DNA haplogroup include "Ötzi the Iceman," Europe's oldest natural human mummy, found in the Alps in 1991, and dated to 5300 YBP; King Richard III of England (1452–1485); Richard Stockton (1730–1781), a signer of the American Declaration of Independence; Joseph Stalin (1878–1953), ruler of the Soviet Union; and Al Capone (1899–1947), 1920s Italian-American gangster.

LAKE HOUSES, GERMANY, 6000 YBP

Reconstructed Neolithic lake dwelling on the shore of Lake Constance, Germany. These houses are based upon archaeological finds at the site, which date from 4000 BC onward.

There are many huge buildings (called megaliths), early Neolithic settlements, artifacts, burial sites, and even a form of writing, which show that the inhabitants of Europe were advanced in the evolution of their societies and culture. For example, copper working had been established in the Balkans by 7000 YBP—some two thousand years before it was produced in the Mesopotamian River Valley.

Fired Pottery and Gold Working in the Balkans

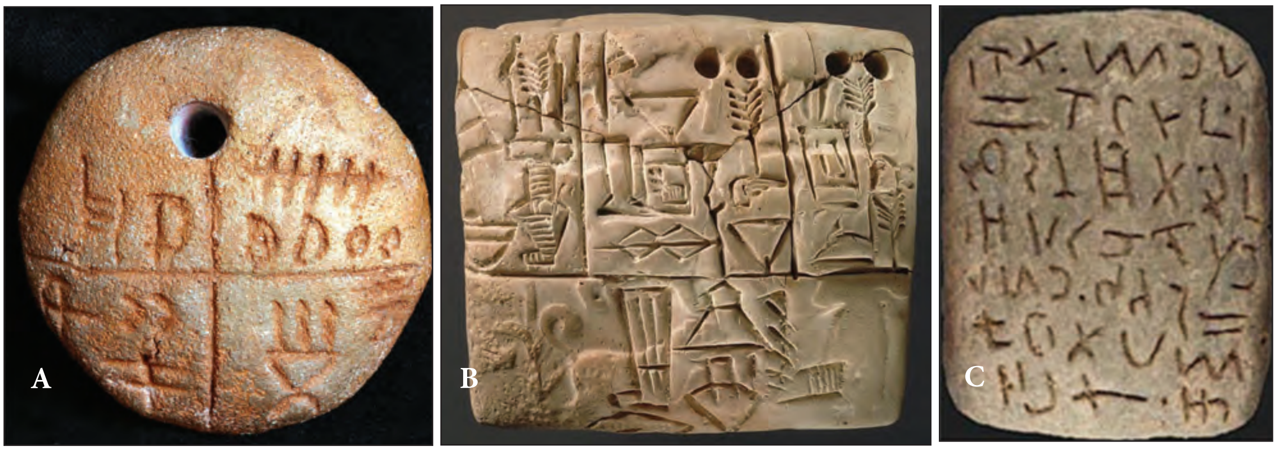
Hand-fired pottery was produced in the Balkans around 8500 YBP. Cities of more than one thousand inhabitants—huge by the standards of the time—had been established by approximately 7000 YBP.

There are copper mine shafts—some twenty meters deep—still existing in the Balkans, which date from before 6000 YBP. Gold-worked jewelry discovered in the Balkans predates the gold working skills of the Egyptians by at least 1,600 years. By 4500 YBP, copper working had spread all over continental Europe, with archaeological evidence showing extensive trade between settlements located in the present-day states of England, France, Holland, and others in central Europe.

Old European Linear Script 6000 YBP—Basis for Runes

These original continental European inhabitants had also developed a form of writing—called Old European linear script—around 6000 YBP. The exact origins of this language are lost, but, given

WORLD'S FIRST PICTOGRAPHIC SYMBOLS, 6500 TO 3500 YBP



From left to right: (A) Undeciphered pictograph writing found on the Tartaria tablet, found in Tartaria, Romania, and dated at 6500 YBP; (B) tablets at Glozel, central France, dating from around 3500 YBP; and (C) a tablet from Jemdet Nasr, Sumeria, Middle East, dated at around 5000 YBP.

FIFTY THOUSAND MEGALITH SITES IN EUROPE REVEAL EXTENSIVE STONE AGE CIVILIZATION

Left: Intricately carved walls on a Megalith tomb dating from before 5000 YBP in Brittany, France. There are over fifty thousand such sites in Europe—proof of a flourishing culture thousands of years old. Right: A Megalith temple in Malta, part of the Ġgantija and Mnajdra complexes, circa 5600 YBP.

their form, they most likely laid the basis for sharp angular writing known as runes. This writing is found on numerous clay tablets—with the most famous being the "Tartaria Tablets" found in Romania—and predates the proto-Sumerian pictographic script tablets by more than a thousand years.

Housing and First European Cities 7000 YBP

In Neolithic Europe, where wood was abundant, rectangular timber houses were common, many with two rooms and even gabled roofs. Remains found in Switzerland dating from around 7000 YBP show that on soft, swampy ground, the builders were able to erect houses by first laying down wooden foundations or by using piles driven deep into the ground.

By 7000 YBP, Neolithic settlements had taken the form of established villages, towns, and in a few cases, even cities, scattered throughout Europe and western and southern Russia. These early Neolithic farmers cultivated cereals and kept domesticated animals such as pigs, cattle, and dogs. Their tools and hunting weapons were mostly made of flint, and their houses of timber. Clothes were made of leather, and there is also evidence of weaving. Other small implements were made of antler and bone, and they have left many examples of sophisticated pottery.

Megaliths—Formidable Achievements

In many parts of Europe, the longest-lasting remnants of this era are the megaliths (from the Greek for *megas* "large" and *lithos* "stone"). These structures—which vary from vast circular stone constructions to single standing stones called menhirs (from the Celtic *maen* "stone" and *hir* "long"), and huge stone temples—are ubiquitous across Europe, with more than 35,000 identified sites ranging from east to west and north to south.

CALLANISH STONES, CIRCA 4500 YBP

The Callanish Stones, pictured against a backdrop of the Aurora Borealis (the "Northern Lights"), are on the Isle of Lewis, Outer Hebrides, Scotland. One of many such structures in the far north of Europe. Circa 4500 YBP.

The skill and technology required to create these structures are impressive, even by present-day standards. Massive blocks of stone, and sometimes wood, were moved great distances and erected in chosen areas throughout Europe.

The largest menhir in existence was found near the town of Locmariaquer, Brittany, France. Erected around 6700 YBP, it stood an impressive 67 feet (over 20 meters) high and weighs more than 300 tons. It was dragged to its current position from its carving place, a rocky outcrop several miles away, and erected as part of a standing stone row, of which it was the highest. Called the "Great Menhir of Er Grah," it collapsed and broke into pieces at some stage in antiquity but is still an impressive sight to the present day, with archaeologists and historians still debating how it was carved and moved.

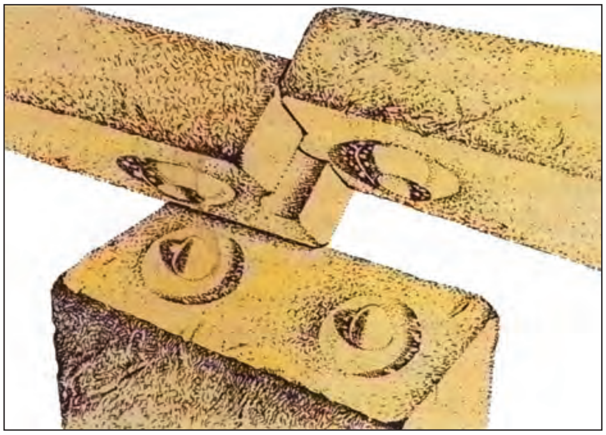
While there are too many great megalith sites to list individually here, some of the more impressive megalith buildings—which are presumed to be temples of some sort, although the details are unknown—include the Ġgantija and Mnajdra temples in Malta (circa 5600 YBP); the Malaga and Guadiana temples in Spain (circa 5500 YBP); and the Los Millares complex near Almería, Spain (circa 5000 YBP), which is very possibly the oldest walled city complex on the European continent.

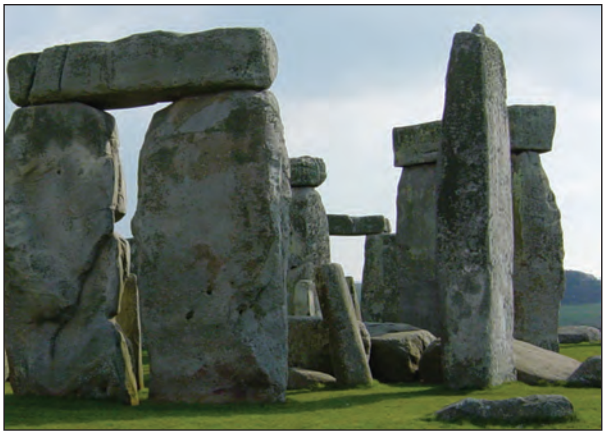
Stonehenge, England: Started 1000 Years Before Oldest Egyptian Pyramids

The most famous megalith site—possibly because of media coverage alone—is the Stonehenge stone circle in Wiltshire, England. Archaeological research has shown that this structure was built in stages, the first part being erected between 5500 YBP and 5000 YBP. To put that into perspective, the first stage of Stonehenge was built about one thousand years before the great Egyptian pyramids. The last part of Stonehenge was built around

STONEHENGE: INGENIOUS MEGALITH BUILDING TECHNIQUES USING STONE JOINTS

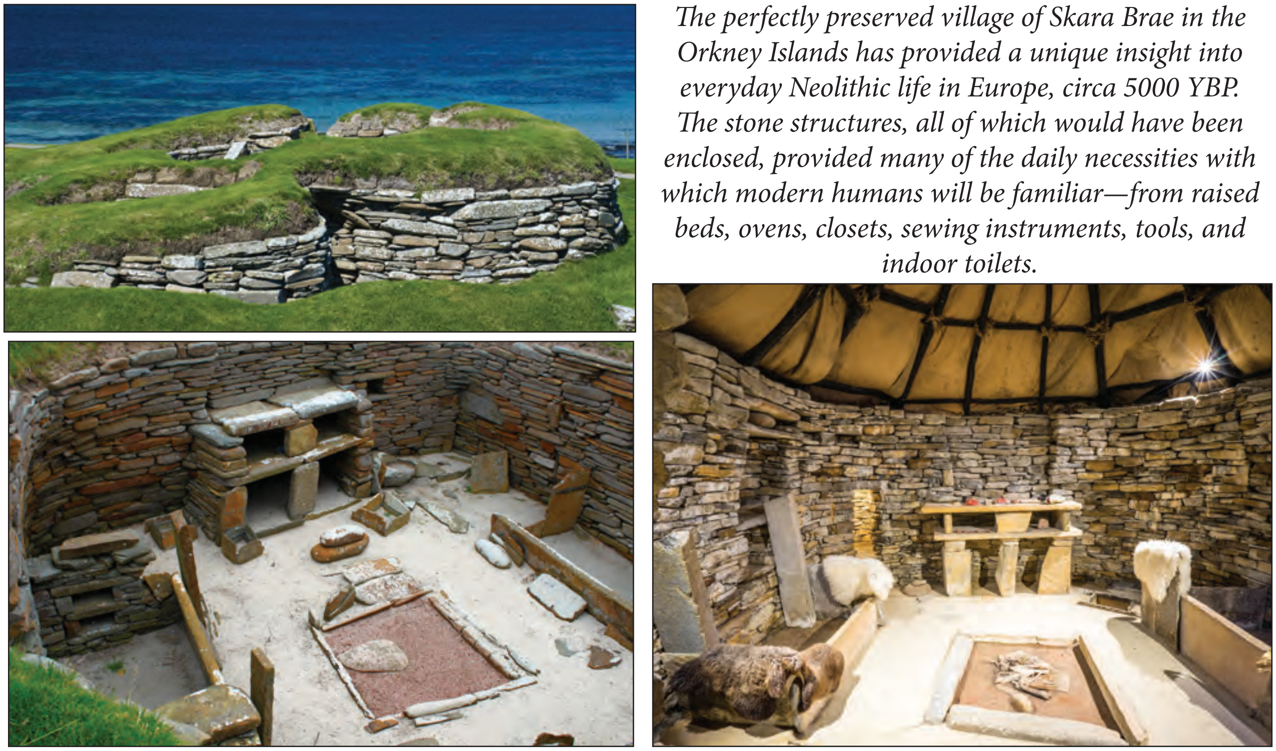
Stonehenge in England is perhaps the world's best-known megalith, constructed in stages from 5000 YBP to 4000 YBP. The alignment of the stones to a solar calendar remains an endearing wonder. This monument was constructed before, or simultaneously with, the Giza pyramids of Egypt.





The megalithic monuments of Neolithic times were not simply piles of stones thrown on top of each other. The stones used at Stonehenge, England, were cut on site and used an ingenious ball and joint system to lock into place. The ball can still be clearly seen on the top of the upright stone to the right, and to the left, an illustration of how the locks worked. The ability to create such structures from stone shows that these people were intellectually adept, and not the "savage barbarians" so often portrayed in the popular media.

SKARA BRAE: EVERYDAY NEOLITHIC LIFE, 5000 YBP



The perfectly preserved village of Skara Brae in the Orkney Islands has provided a unique insight into everyday Neolithic life in Europe, circa 5000 YBP. The stone structures, all of which would have been enclosed, provided many of the daily necessities with which modern humans will be familiar—from raised beds, ovens, closets, sewing instruments, tools, and indoor toilets.

the year 3000 YBP—hundreds of years before the Greek and Roman civilizations.

Neolithic farmers in Europe created several other impressive structures which predate Stonehenge. One of the earliest is situated quite close to Stonehenge, called Robin Hood's Ball, and consists of what appears to be circular foundations for either a large hall, or a number of buildings, and a gravesite (judging by the human remains found in surrounding ditches).

This structure dates from the very early Neolithic time, around 6000 YBP, and indicates the establishment of set social structures at this early stage of European history.

There are also many other arrangements of standing stones, including mysterious rows of menhirs, such as those in Carnac in France; and burial chambers, or chamber tombs, sometimes called a dolmen.

The chamber tombs are the most common type of megalith, and more than fifty thousand examples have been found on the European continent. Some of these tombs' interiors were decorated with intricate stone carvings and geometrical patterns, making stunning viewing even thousands of years after they were created.

DNA Tests Reveal Race of Megalith Builders

The leaders of Neolithic Europe were buried according to religious rituals that are now lost, but their physical graves are a good source of knowledge about their society. The existence of these gravesites—and several chance discoveries of less important graves—has served as a valuable indicator of the racial makeup of these early Europeans.

A 2019 DNA test[5] of the remains of 24 individuals buried in circa 6500 YBP megalith burial sites across Europe has revealed Y-DNA Haplogroups I, and particularly I2, which are lineages associated with European hunter-gatherers. Y-DNA haplogroup I is also strongly associated with Vikings and Scandinavians.

Stara Zagora, Bulgaria: Oldest Neolithic Houses

The substantial remains of Europe's oldest Neolithic houses, dating back to around 8000 YBP, can be found in the present-day city of Stara Zagora. Unearthed in 1968, the double-story dwellings have extended kitchens, furnaces, grain mills, and provided a host of spectacular ceramic vessels that

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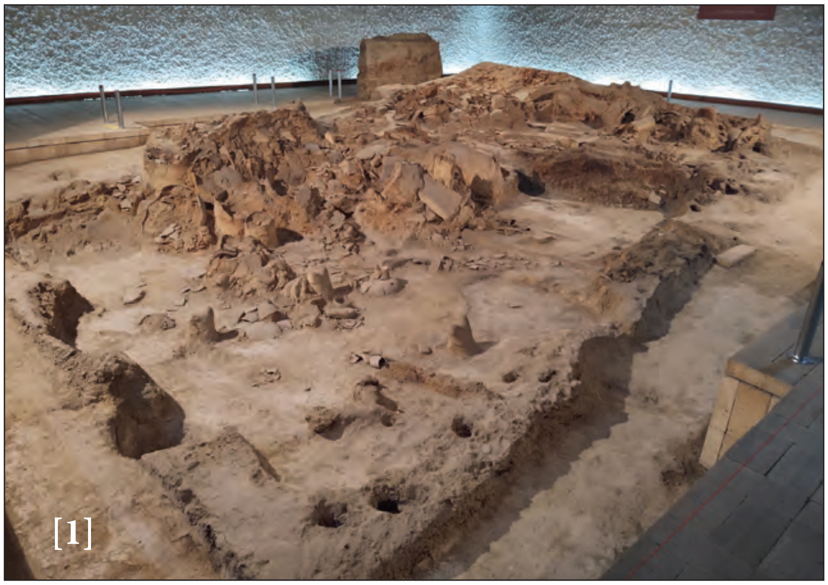
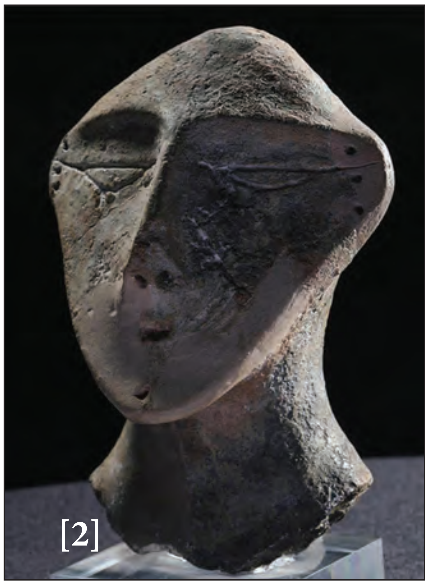
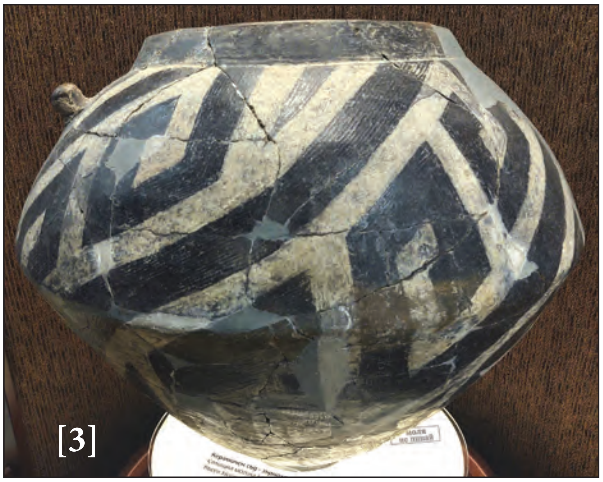
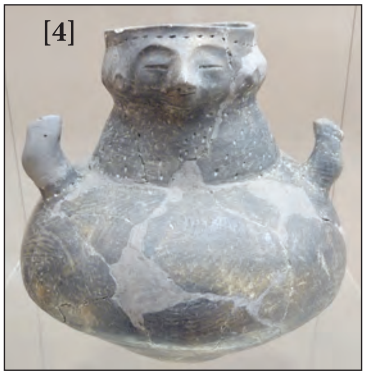
[5] "Megalithic tombs in western and northern Neolithic Europe were linked to a kindred society," Sánchez-Quinto, F., *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America,* 2019 May 7; 116(19): 9469–9474.

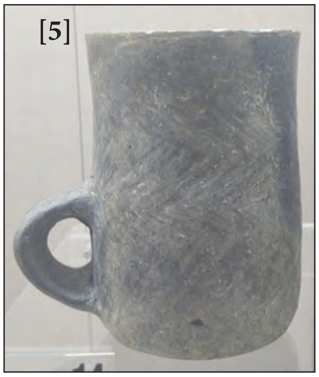
STARA ZAGORA, BULGARIA: DOUBLE STORY NEOLITHIC HOUSE, 8000 YBP











[1] Located in the eastern part of Bulgaria, the town of Stara Zagora contains an interesting find from around 8000 YBP—the substantial remains of a double-story house, indicating a high level of technological sophistication. Discovered in 1969, the house showed fire damage, and rubble scattered throughout the building revealed the presence of an upper level. Inside the house are the remains of three furnaces, used for heating and cooking, hand mills for grinding grain, granaries, and many household items, many of which would not be out of place in a present-day house. (Neolithic Dwellings Museum in Stara Zagora, Bulgaria).

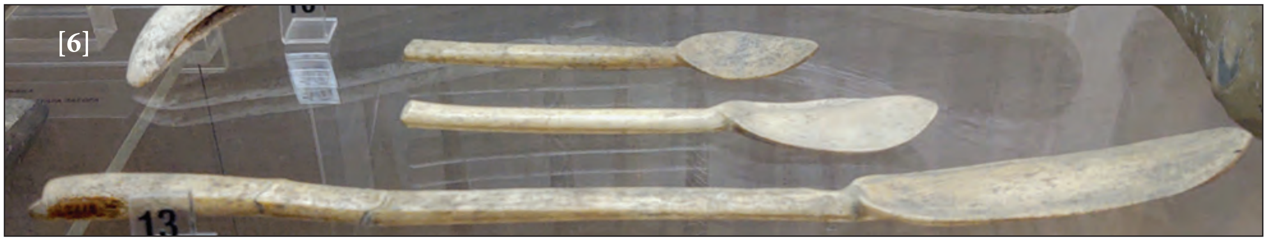
[2] A human face, part of a larger statue of unknown purpose, found at Stara Zagora.

[3] A zoomorphic design on a storage pot, recovered from the Stara Zagora site.

[4] A storage pot with a human face decoration at the top, decorated with concentric circle patterns, from the Stara Zagora site.

[5] A surprisingly modern-looking mug with an "ear" for fingers. Note also the zig-zag design. Stara Zagora Neolithic site.

[6] Modern-looking spoons, carved from bone, found at the Stara Zagora Neolithic site.



SOLNISTA, BULGARIA: EUROPE'S OLDEST "TOWN," 7700 YBP

The remains of the settlement of Solnitsata, near the present-day city of Provadia in Bulgaria, is arguably the oldest city ever discovered on the European continent and has been dated back to 7700 YBP. Solnitsata was a fortified stone settlement with a citadel, an inner and outer city, and sites that produced pottery and salt. It is closely linked to the nearby Varna gold grave hoards, which are believed to have been the product of wealth generated by the salt trade. Solnitsata had a population in the several hundreds, at the very least.

reveal much about everyday life at this early stage in history. The two dwellings were destroyed by a fire shortly after they were built, and the top floors collapsed onto the ground floors, leading the houses to be completely abandoned and covered up. The surviving artifacts, which include the roofing material (straw supported by wooden rafters), pottery vessels, charred grains of wheat, barley, vetch, and lentils, and many household utensils, have allowed archaeologists to recreate Neolithic life in this region down to the smallest detail.

Skara Brae—Best Preserved Neolithic Village

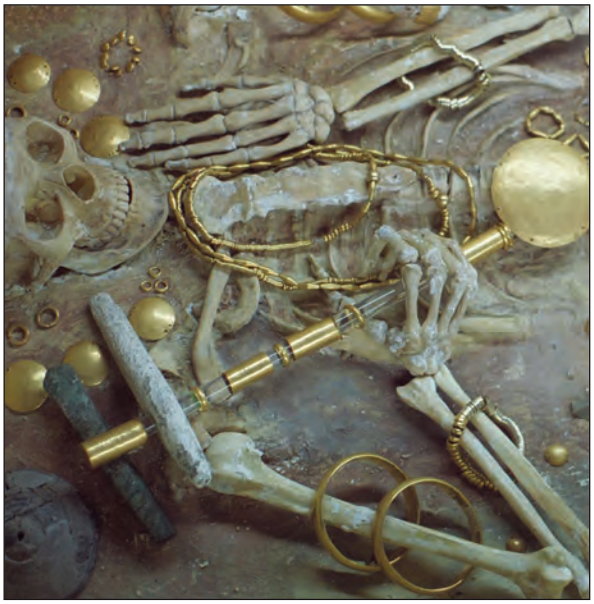
The finely preserved ruins of the village of Skara Brae, located in the Orkney Islands off the northeastern coast of Scotland, provide one of the best insights into everyday Neolithic life in Europe.

Dating from approximately 5100 YBP, the village of Skara Brae consists of eight full houses. It is almost certain that there were far more structures, but they have been lost due to sea and weather erosion. It is also known for certain that other structures exist in adjacent fields and have yet to be excavated.

The houses are built so as to be half-submerged in the ground, presumably as protection against bad weather. Each house contains a stone hearth used for cooking and heating, and stone-built furniture, including closets, cupboards, dressers, seats, and storage boxes. The doors were also made of sliding stone.

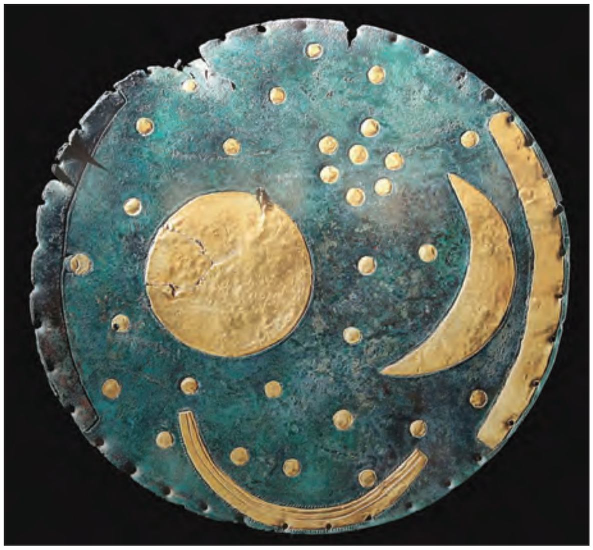
Archaeological digs on the site have revealed bone needles or flint axes, seed grains of barley,

VARNA: WORLD'S OLDEST GOLD, 6200 YBP



The grave goods of the Varna Necropolis, located near the present-day city of Varna, Bulgaria, contain the oldest gold treasure and jewelry in the world, dating between 6600 and 6200 YBP. Discovered in 1972, the site has since been found to contain 294 graves, with numerous highly sophisticated gold and copper pieces, pottery, blades, beads, and shells. Over 3000 gold artifacts have so far been found (and one third of the site still has to be excavated as of 2020), with a weight of over 13 pounds (6 kilograms). One grave contained more gold than has been found in total over the entire world dating from the Neolithic Era. (Varna Archaeological Museum, Varna).

NEBRA SKY DISC: WORLD'S FIRST ASTRONOMICAL DEPICTION

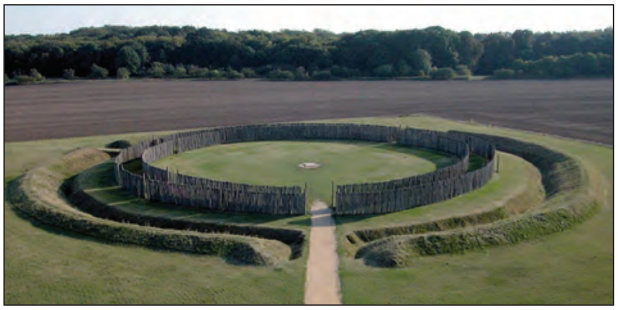


The Nebra Sky Disc, dated to circa 1800 BC, was found near Nebra in eastern Germany. The bronze disc shows an inlaid gold sun or full moon, a lunar crescent, and stars (including a cluster of seven stars, most likely the Pleiades). Two golden arcs, which mark the angle between the solstices, appear on the edges. The remarkably advanced astronomical knowledge indicates a high level of intellectual development. (Halle State Museum of Prehistory, Halle, Germany).

WORLD'S OLDEST WHEEL, 5500 YBP

The world's oldest wheel was found in 2002 outside the city of Ljubljana, Slovenia. The wooden wheel, dated to around 5500 YBP, has a diameter of 70 centimeters, or 27½ inches, and is made of ash and oak. (Ljubljana City Museum, Ljubljana.)

THE GOSECK CIRCLE: PRECISION ENGINEERING



First discovered in 1991, the Goseck Circle in Saxony-Anhalt, Germany is the finest example of the Neolithic ring ditch culture of Central Europe. Built around 4800 BC, the site was fully reconstructed according to geological surveys in 2005.

carved "stone balls" with symbols (which are replicated elsewhere on the stone furniture), knives, beads, shovels, walrus ivory pins, a rope made of twisted heather, and a wooden handle.

Oldest Astronomical Observatory, 7000 YBP

In 2002, archaeologists discovered Europe's oldest astronomical observatory, located near the town of Goseck in the present-day state of Saxony-Anhalt, Germany. Carbon dating of two arrowheads and animal bones found within the site's circular location put the site at 7000 YBP.

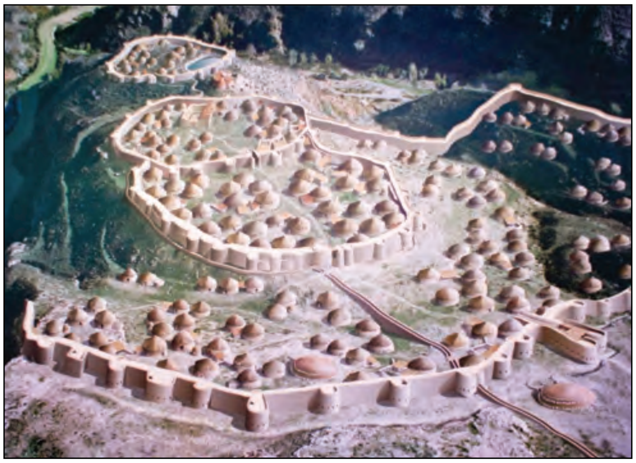
What made the Goseck site different from the approximately 200 other similar prehistoric mound sites located throughout Europe was its unique construction. The circular layers and gradation of the site indicated that it was ideally suited for astronomical observations rather than religious purposes. This belief was reinforced by the nearby discovery of the "Nebra Disc," found in 1999 on the Mittelberg hill near the town of Nebra, only a short distance from the Goseck site.

Dated to around 3600 YBP, the bronze Nebra disc is the oldest representation of the cosmos. Decorated with gold leaf symbols that clearly represent the sun, moon, and stars, it also contains a cluster of seven dots which is most likely to have been the Pleiades constellation as it would have appeared to earth-bound observers at that time.

The Copper Age, 7000 YBP

The gradual end of the Neolithic Age is measured by the introduction of metal working, which occurred in three main phases: the introduction of copper, bronze, and finally iron.

LOS MILLARES: COPPER AGE CITY, SPAIN, 3800 YBP



Los Millares, located in the district of Santa Fe de Mondújar, Andalusia, Spain, is one of the earliest cities with a wall on the European continent. It is also one of the most important Copper Age sites in Europe, and was a center for farming and the earliest copper working in the western Mediterranean. Protected by four lines of walls and twelve semi-circular fortifications, the city, which could accommodate over 1,000 people, also possesses a necropolis with over a hundred tombs. Above right are some of the restored walls, and on the right, a model of the town based on the archaeological finds. (Museo Arqueologico de Almeria, Almería).

The Copper Age, also called the European Chalcolithic Age, saw the working of that metal being first introduced around 7000 YBP. It is from this period that copper first appeared in southeast Europe, and by 5000 YBP, it had reached most of Europe. The Copper Age also saw the first appearance of the Indo-European peoples, whose arrival in Europe would dramatically shape the racial direction of the continent.

Some of the most dramatic Copper Age artifacts yet recovered are contained in what is known as the Varna Culture, and in particular the Varna grave sites, which have yielded a wealth of information from this time period. In particular, genetic tests on the remains found in the most famous Varna burial site, Varna I, showed "intermittent steppe ancestry" (that is, Indo-European) origins.[6] In particular, the very European mtDNA Haplogroup U and Y chromosome haplogroups I2 and R1 were discovered in those tests.

The Bronze Age, 5200 YBP

Bronze working was not introduced uniformly throughout Europe, and in some regions—such as Greece—it was introduced as early as 5200 YBP, and only reached all of Europe by around 4000 YBP. The Bronze Age is deemed to have only ended around 2800 YBP.

The Bronze Age is characterized—as the name indicates—by the widespread use of that metal for the manufacture of decorative cultural items and some weapons. Some of the more dramatic items dating from this time that have been discovered include the Trundholm sun chariot, found in Denmark (circa 3400 YBP), and the "gold hat" phenomenon—a number of headwear items with long, pointed, gold leaf cones, of which four have been found at different sites in Germany and France.

Oldest Wheel in the World 5100 YBP

The oldest existing wheel in the world also dates from this time: the Ljubljana Marshes Wheel is a wooden wheel that was found in 2002 outside the present-day Slovenian city of Ljubljana. Carbon-dated from circa 5100 YBP, it is made of ash

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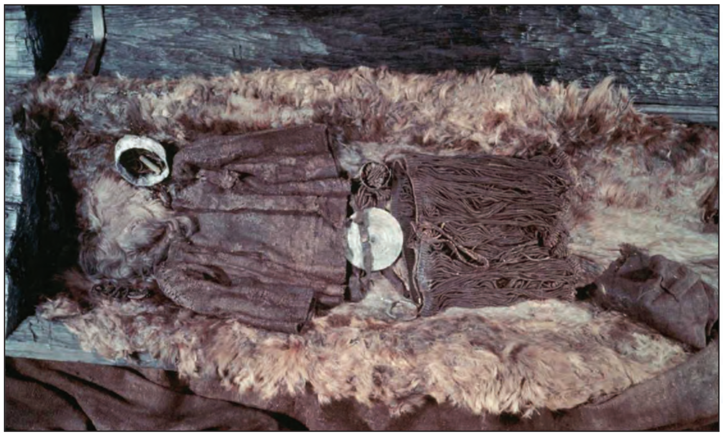
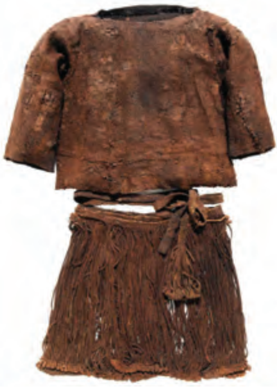
[6] "The genomic history of southeastern Europe," Mathieson, I., *Nature,* volume 555, pages197–203 (2018).

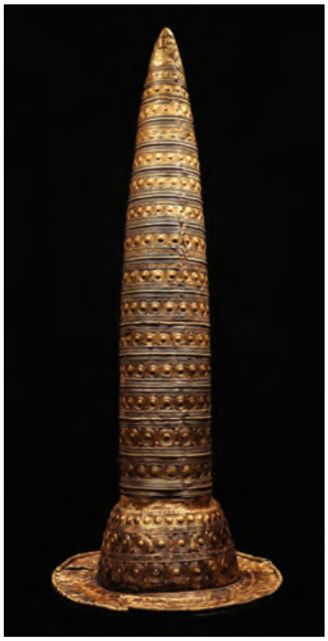
EGTVED GIRL: 3370 YBP NORDIC BRONZE AGE BURIAL

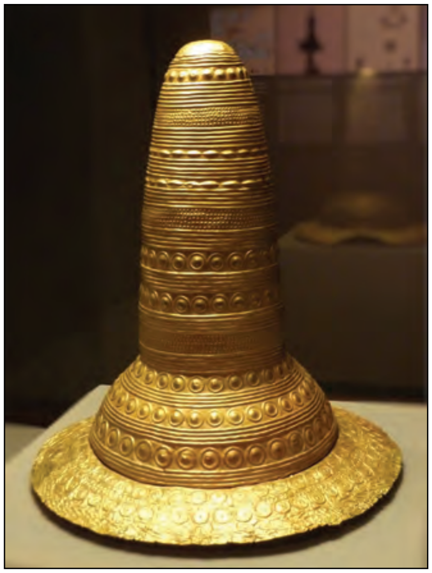


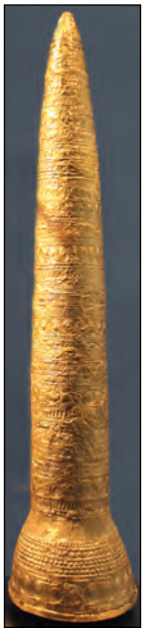


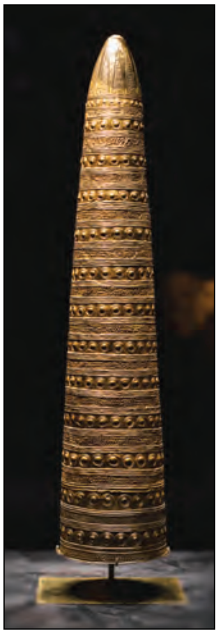
The 1921 discovery of the "Egtved Girl," a Nordic Bronze Age burial site near Egtved in Denmark, caused a sensation because of the well-preserved nature of one of the grave goods therein: the young blonde girl's dress, jewels, belt, and even her hairbrush were found in near-perfect condition. These items all provided a fascinating insight into northern summer fashion in that era. Above: the original wooden coffin, as on display today in the Nationalmuseet, Copenhagen. Alongside are her clothing, and on the right, a model shows how the clothing appeared on a person.

MYSTERIOUS BRONZE AGE "GOLDEN HAT" CULTURE









One of the more mysterious discoveries from Bronze Age sites in Europe (present-day Germany and France) are the so-called "Golden Hats" — strangely shaped headwear, made of gold and obviously for some sort of ceremonial or religious use. The existence of four good examples at different geographic locations in Germany and France indicates that it formed part of a widespread practice around 3500 YBP. Above from left to right: the "Berlin Gold Hat," found in southern Germany; the "Golden Hat of Schifferstadt," found at Schifferstadt near Speyer, Rhineland-Palatinate (Historisches Museum der Pfalz, Speyer); the "Golden Cone of Ezelsdorf-Buch," from Nuremberg in 1953 (Germanisches Nationalmuseum, Nuremberg); and the "Avanton Gold Cone," from near Poitiers in France (Musée d'Archéologie nationale, Saint-Germain-en-Laye). The Ezelsdorf-Buch is the tallest of the hats, and stands nearly 3 feet (90 cm) tall.

wood, and the tree from which it was made was 80 years old at the time it was cut down.

As the wheel shows a sophisticated level of technological skill, it is safe to assume that this was not the "first" wheel of its sort, but that the idea of wheeled vehicles in Europe is probably much older.

Egtved Girl Reveals Nordic Bronze Age Fashion

Another interesting Bronze Age find was in 1921 when the well-preserved grave of the "Egtved Girl" was discovered outside the Danish town of Egtved. Dated to around 3400 YBP, the grave contained the remains of a Nordic Bronze Age girl aged around 18, with well-preserved blond hair.

In addition, her clothing was equally well-preserved, and provides a valuable insight into the fashions of the time: she wears a loose bodice with sleeves reaching the elbow, a bare waist, a short string skirt, bronze bracelets, and a woolen belt with a large, decorated disc.

Next to her head was a birch bark box that contained an awl, bronze pins, and a hairnet. Also found in the coffin was a blanket, an ox hide, flowers from the yarrow plant, and a bucket of beer made of wheat, honey, bog-myrtle, and cowberries.

The Iron Age, 2800 YBP

The Iron Age in Europe is deemed to have started around 2800 YBP and ended within 800 years or so. It is characterized, as the name implies, by the complete dominance of iron over other metals, mainly in the area of weaponry. Iron weapons gave their bearers a significant technological advantage over other metals, and the ability to work iron became a highly sought-after skill.

It is also traditionally associated with the dominance of the Indo-European peoples and their culture throughout Europe, and in particular the "Hallstatt" and "La Tène" cultures.

The Hallstatt culture—centered on the region around the Austrian town of the same name—is, in fact, so closely associated with Indo-European culture and racial types that racial scientists of the early 20th century called the classic Nordic type a "Hallstatt" Nordic.

The Iron Age was also characterized in Britain by the intensive occupation and use of "hill forts" in Britain—low-lying hills with natural defensive positions that could be enhanced with trenches and walls. These hill forts—of which there are nearly 1,700 identified sites—are unique to that island nation.

Rise of Centralized Governments Ends Iron Age

Although it is clear that the last of the megalith building culture ended around 3200 YBP, the metalworking ages are still counted as part of pre-history, and are deemed in fact to have brought the Neolithic Age to an end.

The Iron Age itself is deemed to have ended around the time of the rise of the Greek City States and then the Roman Empire, on account of their transformation of society into an urban and ultra-organized system of central government.

Outside of Europe, there were other civilizations, either directly controlled by Europeans, or heavily influenced by them, all of which "rose" and "fell" during the Neolithic Age in Europe.

These civilizations all had a major impact on the development of civilization and are reviewed in detail in the following chapters.

IRON AGE FORGE, HUNGARY, CIRCA 3000 YBP

A reconstructed Iron Age forge is on display at the Archaeological Park, Százhalombatta, Hungary. The surrounding terrain is home to at least 2700 mound tombs built during the early Iron Age. The site is linked to the Urnfield and Hallstatt cultures. (Régészeti Park, Százhalombatta.)

Chapter 6: Laying the Foundations—

The Old European Civilizations

As the Neolithic revolution became more widespread and larger fixed settlements began to spring up, it was inevitable that the establishment of formal societal structures would follow. These Old European civilizations then came into being, laying much of the groundwork for the later development of classical Greece and Rome.

Although these Old European civilizations were quite distinct from classical Greece and Rome, they are often mistakenly thought of as one and the same thing. The original, or Old European settlements, dominated huge areas of Europe and Russia, stretching from Italy right through to the Black Sea, including all of modern Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and part of Ukraine.

The crucial difference is that the Old European civilizations were largely created by the original continental Europeans (Proto-Nordic, Alpine, and Mediterranean, with the latter two being in the majority), while the classical civilizations of Greece and Rome received their impetus from Indo-European or Nordic invasions which had started around 5000 BC.

The continental Old European civilizations in the Aegean were the Cretan civilization, centered at Knossos on the island of Crete; the city-state of Troy, situated adjacent to the Dardanelles in Asia Minor; certain smaller city-states on the Greek mainland; and the Etruscans in Italy. These city-states were the first to fall before the great Indo-European invasions. Absorbed into the Indo-European peoples, the Old Europeans largely disappeared, and this mix of white peoples laid the basis for the Mycenaean culture, which replaced the Cretan civilization as the dominant force in the Aegean.

Crete—World's First Flushing Toilets

The island of Crete, situated to the south of Greece, was home to the Cretan civilization, also known as the Minoan civilization (named after Minos, in legend the most powerful of the Cretan kings).

The original European Mediterranean racial composition of this first Cretan civilization has been confirmed by the anatomists Bowdy Dawkins, W.L.H. Duckworth, and Felix von Luschan, all of whom excavated and examined skeletal remains on Crete. Their unanimous conclusion was that the Cretans were all members of the Mediterranean subrace.[1] This skeletal evidence is backed up by the art forms left by the Cretans themselves, particularly in the depictions of social events that are still existent on the walls of the now-ruined great Cretan palace at Knossos.

IMPOSING KNOSSOS PALACE 2000 BC

An idea of the enormity and sophistication of the Old European palace of Knossos, Crete, can be gained from this view of surviving pillars and stairs. Three floors high with thousands of rooms, the palace was a masterpiece of early architecture.

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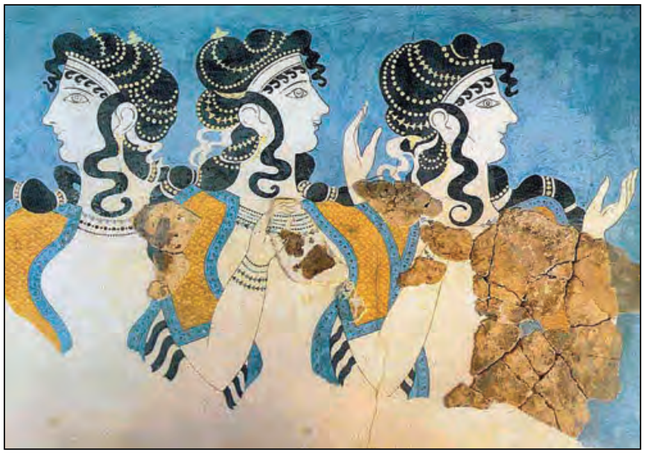
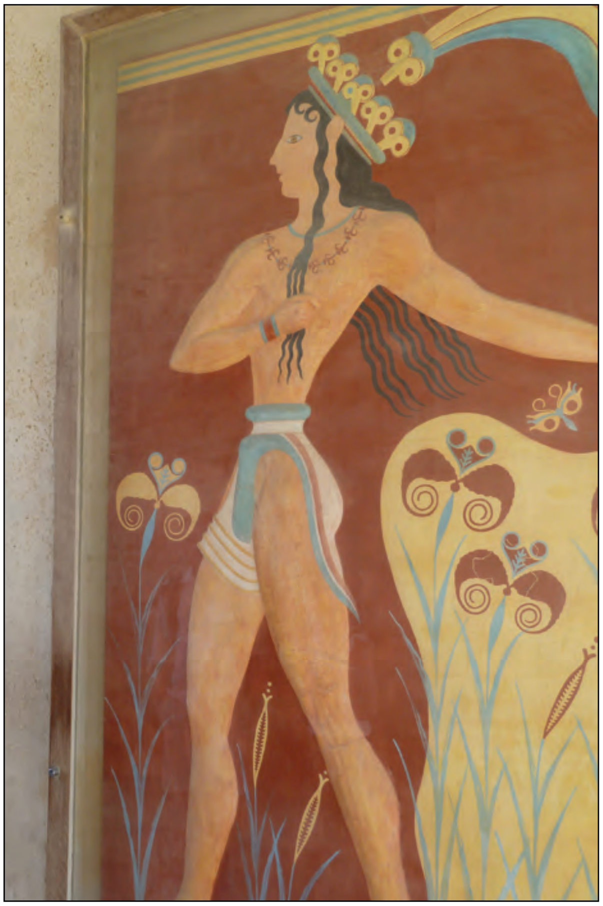
[1] *Race,* John R. Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 516.

OLD EUROPEAN TYPES IN CRETE

Right: A fine depiction of a Minoan king, as shown on a fresco on the walls of the palace of Knossos on Crete. The Old European, or Mediterranean, racial type is clearly depicted on the surviving murals in the palace, as can be seen below in the image of three women, also taken from a surviving fresco. The links between this civilization, ancient Anatolia, Sumeria, and Ancient Egypt are confirmed through surviving records, and the fact that the artists at Knossos followed the widespread convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins.





DNA tests were carried out in 2013[2] on 37 skeletons found buried in a cave on the Lassithi plateau in the island's east, dating to the middle of the Minoan period, or around 3700 YBP. The analysis found that the mtDNA samples were all distinctly European and specifically related to populations from western and northern Europe.

By the year 3000 BC, Crete had contact with the budding Egyptian civilization, and many Cretan religious customs and social habits were taken directly from Egypt. Being an island state, it would be fairly logical that the Cretans would possess well-developed seafaring skills.

The Cretans were governed by a priest-king who had his residence at Knossos. This palace was three stories high and was the ultimate in luxury at the time. The city of Knossos appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake in 1400 BC—the result of the titanic volcanic eruption that destroyed the neighboring island civilization of Santorini. However, enough artifacts have survived to provide a clear picture of the racial types who inhabited the island.

Most of the walls were made of painted plaster, decorated with elaborate frescoes, with the most famous being of a Cretan national sport, "bull jumping"—where brave athletes would grab a charging bull by the horns and somersault backward over the length of the bull's body.

Minoan art provides fascinating insight into the nature of the society at the time—men and women dressed for the warm climate, with women bare-breasted, and men beardless.

Ancient Cretans followed the Egyptian artistic convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins. Flowers, plants, sea creatures, and dolphins feature prominently in their art forms, indicating that their society was advanced and wealthy enough to concern itself beyond just basic survival activities. One interesting original development introduced at Knossos was a running

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[2] "A European population in Minoan Bronze Age Crete," Hughey, J..R., *Nature Communications,* volume 4, Article number: 1861 (2013).

KNOSSOS—SOPHISTICATED BUILDINGS AND INFRASTRUCTURE

The sophisticated nature of the palace of Knossos on Crete is apparent from the fine staircases that can still be seen today—a magnificent example of Old European civilization at its height. The palace remains suffered earthquake damage and possible war damage after the Old European civilizations were toppled by Indo-European invaders. The vast palace, with its thousands of rooms, spawned the myth of the Minotaur, a half-bull, half-man creature in Greek mythology, and of the labyrinth or maze in which it lived.

WORLD'S OLDEST EXISTING THRONE 2000 BC

The throne room of Minos in the palace of Knossos on Crete. It is the oldest existing throne in the world, cut out of stone and built into the wall. The palace was constructed circa 2000 BC.

water sanitation system—the first "flushing" toilet in the world.

The exact date of the collapse of the Cretan civilization is unfortunately not recorded, but it stopped functioning as a cultural unit when the island was invaded by an Indo-European Nordic tribe, the Mycenaeans, around the year 1500 BC.

The Cretans were thereafter physically absorbed into the Mycenaeans and later became an integral part of the civilization of classical Greece. In 1900, a British archaeologist, Sir Arthur Evans, rediscovered Knossos and found baked clay tablets with two types of writing dating from around 2000 BC.

These are called Linear A and Linear B scripts, which are possibly the oldest identifiable forms of European continental writing (if the "writing stones" found at the Caves of Mas d'Azil in France and the Tartaria Tablet from Romania are discounted).

Later research showed that the Linear B script was a form of Mycenaean writing (which has been deciphered), while the Linear A script was original Cretan (which has not been deciphered).

City of Troy—First Built 3000 BC

Around the year 750 BC, two great epics, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*, were set down and attributed to the poet Homer. *The Iliad* describes the war between the Greek city-states and the city of Troy, while *The Odyssey* tells of the adventures of an Ionian king, Odysseus, during his journey home after the war with Troy had ended.

For many years, the city of Troy was thought to exist only in Homer's poems and was associated with the famous story of the wooden horse. (Greek soldiers supposedly infiltrated the city of Troy, hidden in a trick wooden horse, after having un-

LEGEND BECOMES REALITY—TROY REDISCOVERED

Once thought only to exist in the imagination of the poet Homer, the city of Troy did, in fact, exist and was discovered by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann in the late nineteenth century. Instead of finding one city, Schliemann discovered nine different cities, each built on top of the other.

Troy was originally founded by the Old European civilizations and was occupied by numerous powers during its history: hence the nine different layers. The wall at the very left of the picture dates from the city built by the Romans when they occupied Troy. Unfortunately, very little is known of the earlier cities, and the subject is one of much speculation.

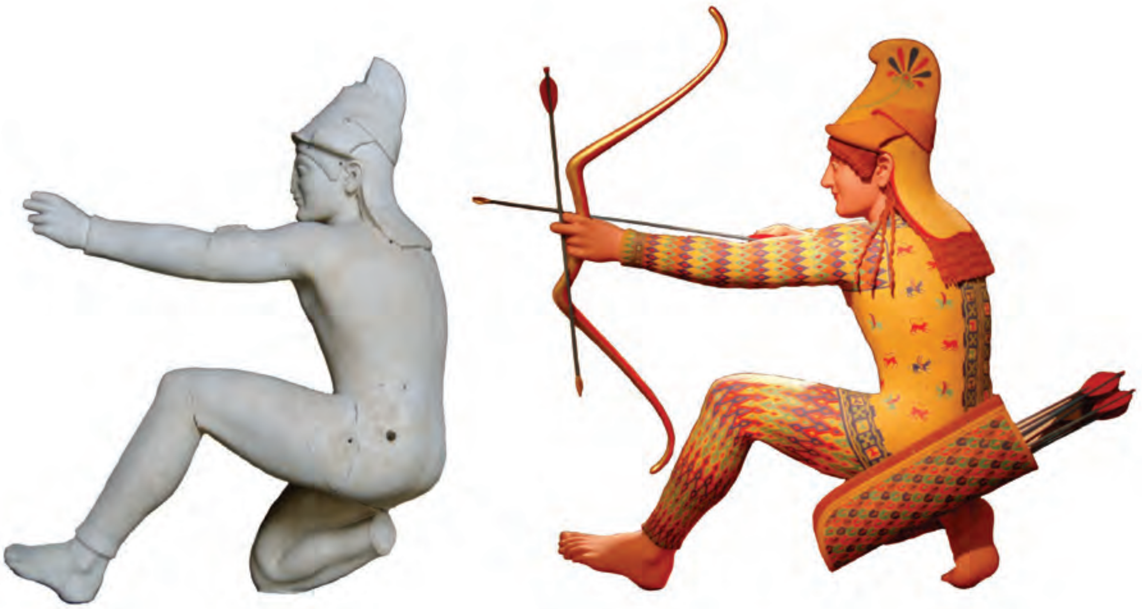
successfully besieged Troy for nearly ten years.) In 1870, an amateur archaeologist, Heinrich Schliemann, discovered the city of Troy. He unearthed a total of nine cities, all built on top of one another, indicating entire periods of history about which very little is known.

The earliest city on the site dates from about 3000 BC, and the various cities (called Troy I–IX) were destroyed in a series of earthquakes, fires, or wars, as recounted in Homer's poems.

It is difficult to state for certain how much of the wooden horse story is true, but it is likely to have some basis in fact, as Troy and many Greek city-states were at war with one another around the year 1200 BC.

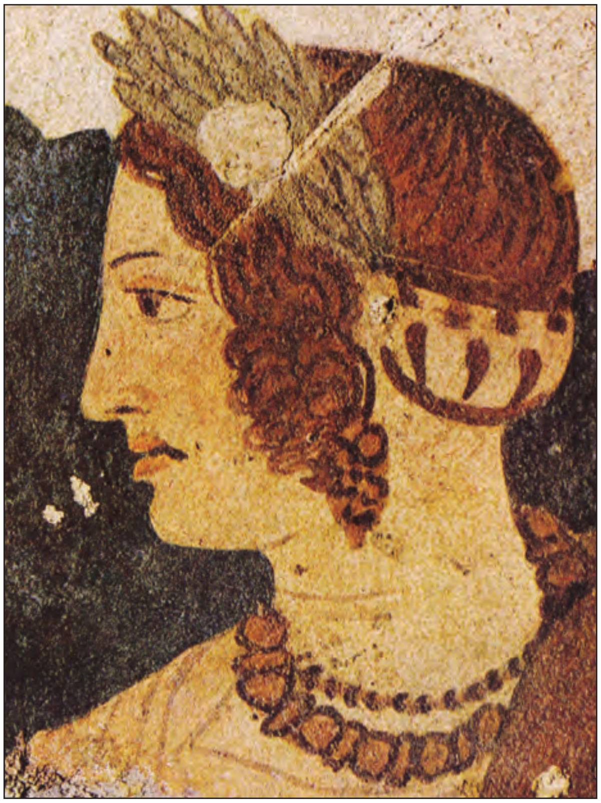
The last Trojan city, number IX, appears to have been a Greek and later a Roman city known as Ilium. As with Crete, the date of the exact end of Troy has also been lost with the passage of time. By the time Troy had fallen, the great Indo-European in-

THE TROJAN BOWMAN OF APHAIA



Left: A Trojan bowman, carved from marble. A figure on the east facade of the temple of Aphaia, in Aegina, Greece, and right, as reconstructed by experts using paint traces found on the original. The Temple of Aphaia (circa 500 BC) is on the Greek island of Aegina, which lies just to the southwest of Athens.

ETRUSCAN WOMAN, 500 BC



Profile of a Woman—Etruscan, late fourth century BC. Wall painting, Tomb of Orcus, Tarquinia.

vasions of the Greek mainland had begun, and it is possible that the city may at one stage have been destroyed during one of these invasions.

The Etruscans—Origins North of the Alps

The Etruscans were one of the original Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic peoples living in the Italian peninsula before the Indo-European invaders reached that part of the world.

Originally called the Villanovans (after a place where they lived), the Etruscans penetrated Italy from somewhere north of the Alps. They apparently had close contact with some of the Old European civilizations around the Aegean Sea, as they adopted Greek characters for writing their language.

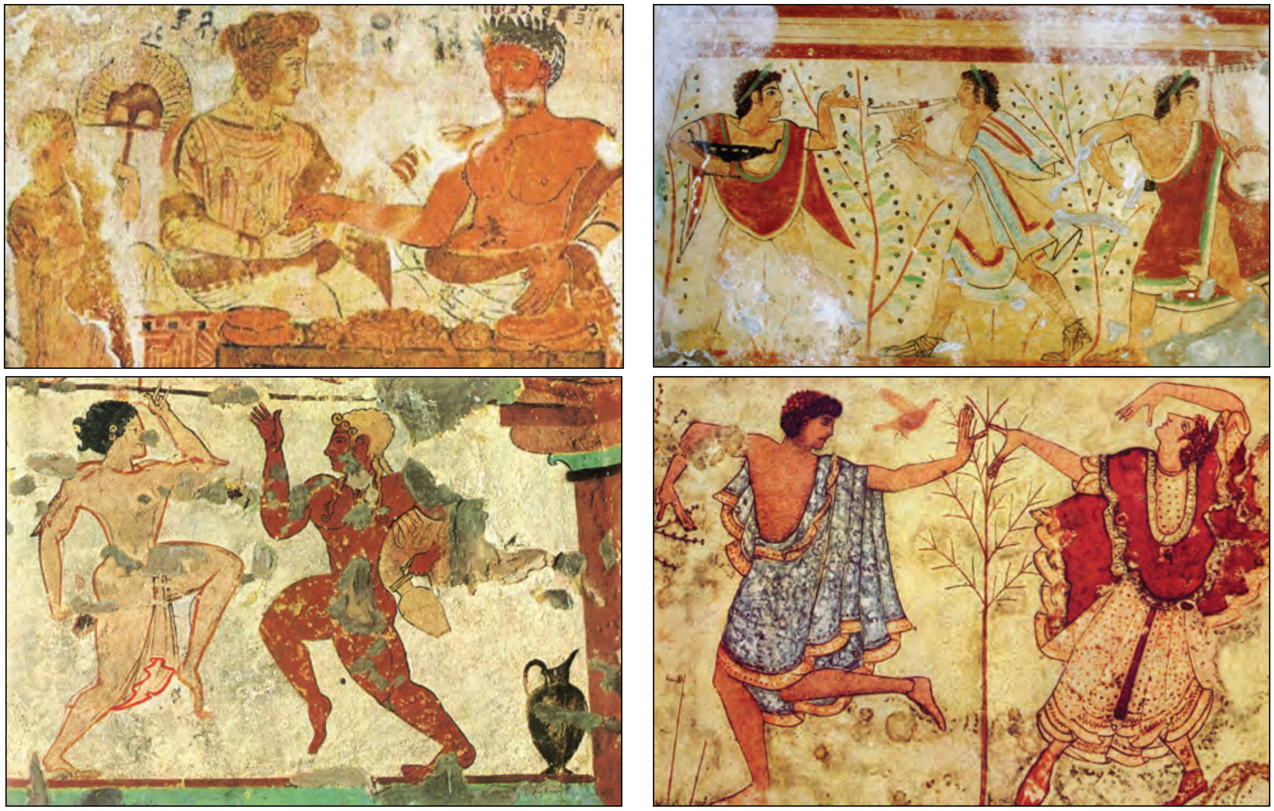
Villanovan grave sites have revealed a rich yield of impressive worked metal armor and personal artifacts, some dating from 1000 BC, the time when iron-working first became widespread in Italy.

With the advantage provided by iron weapons, the Etruscans quickly subdued other original Mediterranean peoples in Italy and established a state running from the Po River Valley in the north to about a third of the way from the end of the Italian peninsula.

Their most notable achievement was the settlement of towns and concentrated urban areas,

ETRUSCANS—FOUNDERS OF ROME

Original representations of the racial characteristics of the Etruscan peoples, who occupied the Italian peninsula before the arrival of the Indo-European Latini tribe. The Latini, who gave their name to the language they spoke, Latin, mixed with the Etruscans, and from this combination came the Romans. All paintings from the Etruscan tombs at Tarquinia, fifth to sixth century BC.
(Note the Old European artistic tradition of painting the men red.)



A detail from the sarcophagus of Seianti Hanunia Tlesnana, a life-size tomb of an Etruscan noblewoman dating from the second century BC. (British Museum, London.)

THE INDUS RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATION

Mohenjo-Daro, the center of the Old European Indus River Valley civilization. Excavated first in 1921, this white Mediterranean civilization was situated in the present-day Sind and Punjab regions of India. It was settled by Old Europeans around 2500 BC who were possibly migrants from the Tigris/Euphrates River area. Mohenjo-Daro was the greatest city of this civilization. Its ruins still contain the city's waterborne sewerage system, and share many other architectural similarities with other Old European centers in Europe.

one of which was later to become the city-state of Rome. With the arrival of new invading Indo-European tribes—in this case, the most important being the Latini—the Etruscans were absorbed into the new Roman state, with the last official Etruscan king being expelled from Rome in 509 BC.

After a few hundred years, the assimilation process between the Etruscans and the Indo-European Latini tribe (the Romans) had reached the point where the Romans offered the Etruscans full citizenship. By 100 BC, the Etruscans had been completely absorbed into the Roman Empire, which was in turn to dominate the known world.

In addition to the Old European civilizations on the European continent, the Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic subracial groups had, by 4000 BC, occupied much of what is today known as the Middle East—from Egypt through to the Fertile Crescent (the region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers).

These original Mediterraneans were responsible for many of the civilizations in that region. They were subject to almost constant invasion: either by waves of Indo-Europeans from the north or by waves of invading Semites from the south.

Sometimes these Old Europeans managed to defeat the invaders, but more often than not, they were unable to resist. In this way, they were gradually absorbed into the gene pools of their conquerors—these events are reviewed in another chapter.

Old European Civilization in India 2500 BC

One of the most far-flung of the Old European settlements was to be found in present-day northern India. Known as the Harappan culture (after an excavated city, Harappa, in modern Pakistan) or the Indus Valley Civilization, it was unknown until 1927 when the first major excavations took place.

The remains of settlements belonging to this culture have been found throughout the Indus River Valley in Pakistan, westward along the coast to the Iranian border, in India's northwestern states as far east as New Delhi, and on the Oxus River in northern Afghanistan.

The Old European, or white Mediterranean, racial makeup of the people who created the Indus River Valley civilization has been proven by an examination of skulls and skeletal remains, undertaken by Col. R.B.S. Selwell and Dr. B.S. Guha of the Zoological Society of India, who both found that almost all were of the Mediterranean subrace.[3] A 2019 genetic study[4] on human remains found in the ancient Rakhigarhi cemetery (circa 2600 to 1900 BCE), today located in the northeastern Indian state of Haryana, revealed that the individual tested was related to ancient Iranians and had split off from that population at least 12,000 years ago.

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[3] *Mohenjo-Daro and the Indus Civilization,* Chapter 11, Marshall. J, 1931, London.

[4] "An Ancient Harappan Genome Lacks Ancestry from Steppe Pastoralists or Iranian Farmers," Vasant Shinde et al, *Cell,* September 05, 2019.

This confirmed that the Harappans belonged to a much older "Old European" group in the Middle East, and had settled the region long before later Indo-European invaders. The first Old European settlement of the region was made around 2500 BC when the white Mediterraneans probably arrived after trekking from either ancient Iran or the Tigris and Euphrates River Valley.

They found darker natives in the region who were easily subdued. The two major cities of the Indus Valley civilization were Mohenjo Daro, in the lower Sind, and Harappa, in the Punjab.

PRIEST'S HEAD, MOHENJO-DARO 4000 YBP

Priest's Head (Limestone) from Mohenjo-Daro, 4000 YBP. (Artifacts from the Indus Valley Civilization gallery of National Museum, New Delhi, India).

In many respects, the cities of the Old European Indus Valley civilization were almost identical to that of other Old European civilizations, particularly that of Knossos on Crete. Even the layout of the cities, with their huge square buildings, was identical.

Mohenjo-Daro—Forty Thousand Inhabitants

The major site in this region is the city of Mohenjo-Daro. The remains of this citadel—excavated between 1927 and 1930—bear a striking physical resemblance to the Old European settlements in early Mesopotamia and Crete.

At its peak, Mohenjo-Daro must have had over forty thousand inhabitants, a substantial amount for the time.

The city was based on an advanced grid plan layout, with streets running in very clearly arranged city blocks. One of the most astonishing aspects of the city was the sewage system—the people of Mohenjo-Daro developed both public and private hygiene to a degree unmatched in many parts of the modern world. Each house, large or small, was provided with an earthenware pipe fitted crossways into the walls, which opened into a small individual gutter. This, in turn, joined central covered sewers.

At intervals, there were decantation ditches where the main sewers joined. These were designed to collect the heaviest waste so that it would not obstruct the mains. The houses also all had baths—another innovation for the time—and the water for this purpose was supplied from the many wells throughout the city.

All the Indus River Valley civilization towns had great building works and an orderly administration built upon an agricultural economy. Many of the houses were built on mud-brick platforms that protected the buildings from seasonal floods, and multiple-story dwellings were common. Other structures included large buildings that may have been used for storing grain for private or government use.

The Old European inhabitants of the Indus River Valley also developed pictographic writing. A large number of clay seals bearing this language have been recovered, but sadly they have never been deciphered.

It is often suggested that the drying up of a major river in north India—the Hakra River—was the cause of the collapse of the Indus River Valley civilization.

This is not the likely cause of the collapse of the entire culture as it was spread out further than just around one river. The real reason for the disappearance of the people of the Indus River Valley is much simpler.

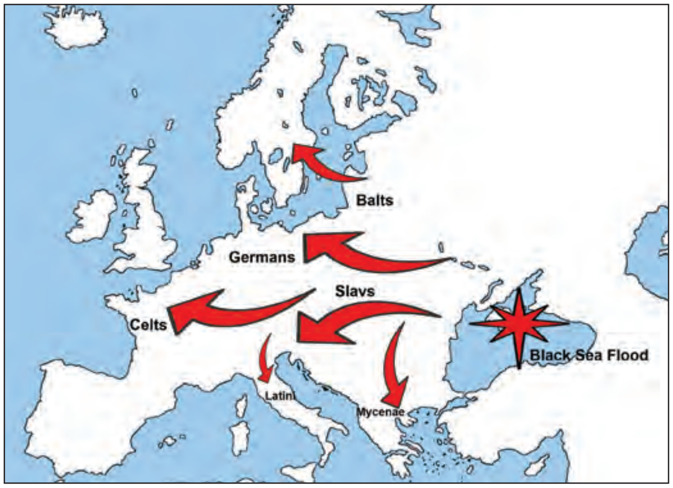
Like all of the Old European civilizations, the Indus Valley Harappans were overwhelmed and integrated into other peoples, whether dark natives or the new white invaders, the Indo-European "Aryans" (Sanskrit for "noble") who were to enter northern India around 1800 BC.

Chapter 7: Born of the Black Sea— The Indo-European Invasions of the West

Many present-day whites are either direct or partial descendants of a great wave of white peoples, speaking a proto-Indo-European language, who swept into Europe in a series of waves that started around 7500 Years Before Present (YBP), or 5000 BC.

These peoples, carriers of genes which brought predominantly fair hair and light-colored eyes, had their starting points in the steppes of what is today the central and southern part of Russia, located around the Black Sea Basin.

BLACK SEA FLOOD CAUSES INDO-EUROPEAN MIGRATION 5600 BC



Meltwaters from the retreating ice sheets at the end of the Pleistocene caused the world's oceans to rise by almost 328 feet (100 meters). In 5600 BC, the risen waters of the Mediterranean Sea burst through the narrow neck of the Bosporus, inundating and destroying the civilization ringing the fertile Black Sea basin. It is this catastrophe that triggered the great Indo-European migrations and spawned the legend of the biblical flood. Leaving the Black Sea basin, the Indo-European peoples invaded Europe and Asia. Europe was settled by four main groups: the Celts, the Germans, the Balts, and the Slavs. Offshoots included the Mycenae (A) in Greece and the Latini (B) in Italy. Other migrations went east (see next chapter).

Climate Change Drives Migrations

The driving force for this great Indo-European invasion was climate change. Extensive geological research in the Black Sea region has revealed that global warming caused large-scale melting of the ice waters of the last mini ice age. This, in turn, caused the water levels to rise, and certain geologically vulnerable spots—in particular the narrow land bridge which kept the Mediterranean Sea separate from the then freshwater Black Sea—were breached. The subsequent flooding of the Black Sea destroyed the human settlements on the lake shore, sparking the first of the major population movements.[1]

Evidence of the original Black Sea shoreline and artifacts from that time have been recovered, and the event is now no longer in doubt. The flooding of the Black Sea is also the likely origin of the great flood legend in the world's oldest novel, *The Epic of Gilgamesh*, and it has been speculated that it is from there that the biblical story of "Noah and the flood" also originated.[2]

With the aid of the horse, these first Indo-Europeans moved in all directions, disrupting the slow but steady pace of development everywhere they went. Large numbers settled in northern Europe; others moved off to the Middle East, and yet more ventured west, crossing into Britain and Spain.

DNA Evidence Proves Indo-European Movements, Called "Yamnaya Culture"

The Indo-European invasion has long been underpinned by historical and archaeological evidence. Detractors of the theory have, however,

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[1] "The Mystery of the Black Sea Floods Solved," Kuman, M., *Journal of Earth Science & Climatic Change,* January 2018, Volume 9, Issue 9, 9(09).

[2] *Noah's flood: The new scientific discoveries about the event that changed history,* Pitman. R. W., Simon and Schuster, 1999.

ANCIENT FACES FROM CEMETERIES IN THE INDO-EUROPEAN HEARTLAND

Facial reconstructions from skeletons found in cemeteries in southern Russia, known as the "Kurgan Mound" culture, dating from around 5000 Years Before Present (YBP), or 3000 BC. From left to right: A reconstruction of a woman from the Lower Volga Veseliy I cemetery, kurgan 8, burial 1; facial reconstruction from the Burial 1, Kurgan 5, Alexandrovskiy cemetery, Voronezh, Russia; and a reconstruction from the Kizilskiy I cemetery, Chelyabinsk Oblast, Russia. (Sources: "Ancient Population of the Lower Volga Region According to Craniology and Anthropological Facial Sculptural Reconstruction from a Skull," Nizhnevolzhskiy Arkheologicheskiy Vestnik *[The Lower Volga Archaeological Bulletin], vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 158–173; and "The Bronze Age people of the Arkaim Valley (problem of continuity of population from the Yamnaya to the Sintashta culture)," Kitov, E., Russian Academy of Sciences,* Stratum plus. Nr. 2. Archaeology and Cultural Anthropology, *2016).*

been finally silenced by the emergence of a number of genetic and DNA studies which have conclusively proven that a mass movement of people, now called the "Yamnaya" or "Kurgan" culture, took place at the exact time which historical evidence had linked to the arrival of the Indo-Europeans.

As one scientific paper, published in 2022,[3] put it:

> "The discoveries of massive migrations from the steppe both westward into Central and Western Europe, and eastward into South Siberia and Central/South Asia, have provided powerful evidence for the theory of steppe Indo-European origins by linking populations all the way from Northwest Europe to India and China through common steppe ancestry . . . [this] study adds further support to the theory by the discovery of ubiquitous ancestry from the steppe in the Bronze Age Balkans, including individuals of predominantly steppe ancestry. . . and by the further documentation of steppe ancestry in the Aegean during the Mycenaean period when the Greek language is first attested . . . All ancient and present-day branches of the Indo-European language family can be derived or at least linked to the early Bronze Age Yamnaya pastoralists of the steppe or genetically similar populations."

Thus, it is clear that the Indo-European invasions were, in terms of population shifts and culture, vitally important, and, as will be shown, sparked an upsurge in civilizations from China to Europe.

"Battle Axe People"—Iron Making Advantage

The Indo-Europeans—largely Nordic in terms of their racial subgroup composition—moved slowly westward, invading and re-invading western Europe for a period of nearly six thousand years, finally resulting in the establishment of a new Nordic heartland in northern Europe.

Their great advantage over the already existing white Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic popula-

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[3] "The genetic history of the Southern Arc: A bridge between West Asia and Europe," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Science,* Aug 2022, Vol. 377, Issue 6609. See also "A genetic probe into the ancient and medieval history of Southern Europe and West Asia," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Science,* Aug 2022, Vol. 377, Issue 6609; "Ancient genomes and West Eurasian history," Arbuckle, B. S., et al., *Science,* Aug 2022, Vol. 377, Issue 6609; and "Massive Migration from the Steppe Was a Source for Indo-European Languages in Europe," Haak, W., et al., *Nature,* 522 (7555): 207–211.

THE STRETTWEG WAGON, 700 BC

A finely cast bronze wagon complete with figures from Strettweg, Austria, 700 BC. Yet another astonishing technological feat, predating the Roman era by hundreds of years.

tions was that they brought with them the secret of iron-working; this is why some became known as the "battle axe people." From this heartland in northern Europe—the womb of nations (*vagina gentium,* as the Romans called the region)—successive waves of Indo-European invaders later swept down over a period of centuries into all parts of Europe and into the Near East, conquering or displacing the peoples they found.

These original tribes had stone buildings and worked with bronze and copper. How much of this metalworking skill was passed south to the Middle Eastern civilizations remains a matter of debate. However, what is certain is that successive waves of Indo-European tribes started invading central and southern Europe in earnest about 4000 YBP.

They occupied large areas of present-day Turkey, Crete, Greece, southern Europe, and Italy. It was not long before these groups integrated, although the Indo-Europeans often provided the leadership elite of the societies that were created.

Some migrated into the Far East—as far as what is today western China, where Nordic remains have been found in burial chambers.

The Indo-European tribes were responsible for many of the world's principal civilizations: the Aryans in India, the Kassites, the Hittites, and the Persian, Mycenaean, Greek, Roman, Celtic, Teutonic, Slavic, and present-day western European cultures.

The Indo-European Invasions—Europe

The largest Indo-European invasion of Europe was carried out by four main groups: Celts, Germans, Balts, and Slavs. The Indo-European invasions of Europe took place in four main waves, culminating in a series of subwaves. Each subwave consisted of a smaller tribe from one of the four major migrations.

Leaving their ancestral homeland in the Caucasus, the Celts, Germans, Balts, and Slavs settled in different regions of Europe, often giving their names to those areas. Subwaves of note included the Mycenae into Greece, and the Latini into Italy—which sparked off the great classical civilizations for which those lands became famous.

Mixture Causes Spread of Phenotypes

In all of these regions, the invaders found the already present population of Old Europeans to be largely racially assimilable. Hence, the Latini mixed with the Etruscans in Italy, producing a Nordic/Mediterranean mix that typified the original Roman type.

The same process occurred in Ireland, which is the cause of the "Irish look" varying between Nordic (blue-eyed and blonde) and dark hair with dark eyes, or dark hair with light eyes.

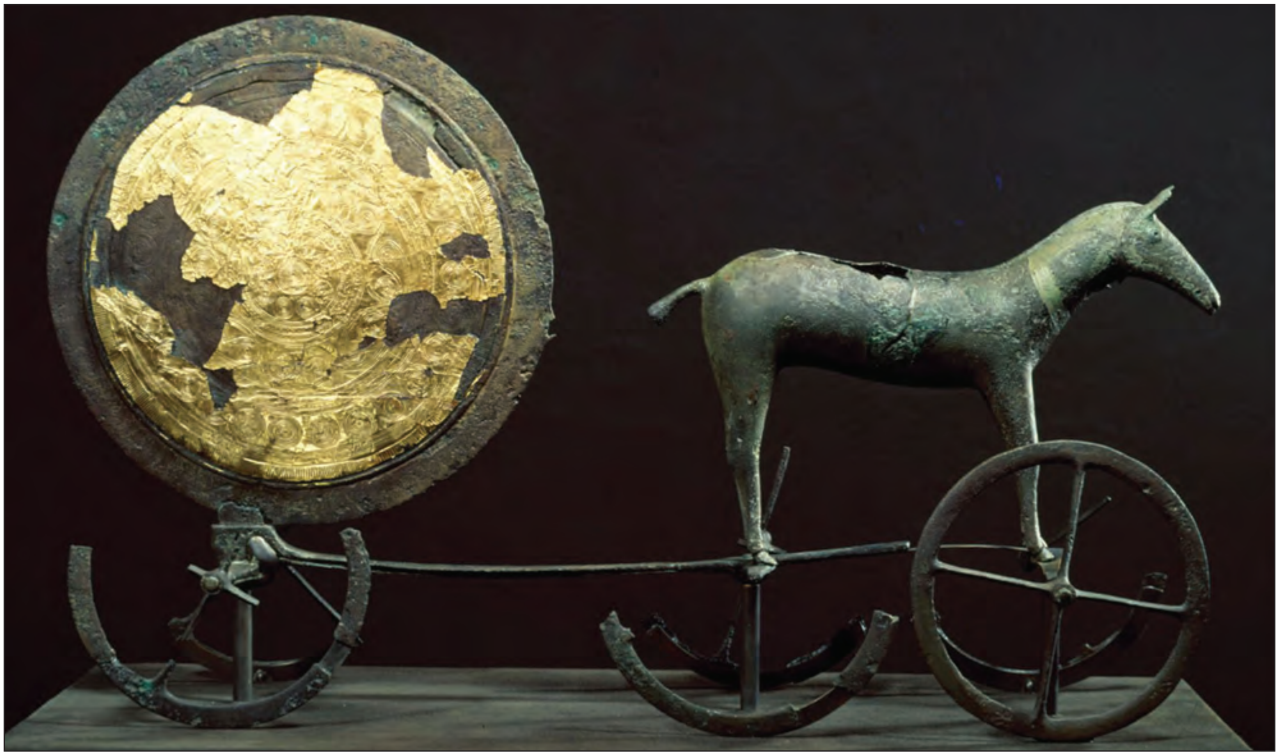
The word Celt is derived from *Keltoi,* the name given to the invaders by the Greek writer Herodotus. To the Romans, the Celts were known as *Galli,* or *Gauls,* and in the British Isles, as *Britanni.* Celtic tribes also invaded Greece and Italy. In 390 BC, the Celts sacked Rome, and followed this up with a raid on the holy Greek site of Delphi in 279 BC.

Although these Indo-European tribes used different names, they were all of common Nordic subracial stock. Their languages all stemmed from a single proto-Indo-European language, which formed at a time when all of their ancestors lived together in their original Indo-European heartland in present-day Russia.

The influx of a relatively large number of new Nordic subgroups into Europe affected the racial makeup of the various regions in different ways, depending upon the nature of the already existing original European population.

In areas where there was a sparse population, or where there were larger numbers of Proto-Nordics, the Indo-Europeans maintained to a greater

GERMAN RELIGIOUS CHARIOT 1,400 BC



Ancient German religious ceremonial chariot, with bronze and gold-worked disc and horse, circa 1400 BC. The workmanship gives lie to the "barbarian" accusation so often heard from the Romans. Found in the Trundholm Bog on the Danish island of Seeland. (National Museum of Denmark, Copenhagen).

degree their Nordic characteristics. Where there was an already existing Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mix, the Nordicism of the new arrivals was soon diluted. The least populated areas and the region with the fewest number of Alpine/Mediterranean peoples were in northern and western Europe. These areas became a new Nordic heartland, a situation that remained unaltered until very recently.

By 600 BC, the *Britanni* Celts had occupied much of what is today known as western Europe: France, parts of the Low Countries (Belgium, Holland), Britain, and Spain. The names Brittany (in France) and Britain are derived from this group.

The Celts, migrating westward, found the regions sparsely populated by an already quite mixed Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean population. In most parts, the Celts mixed easily with these groups, producing a wide range of subgroup racial types.

This resulted in the Celtic "look" varying between the typical short, brown-eyed, and brown-haired "Celtic" Welshman, and the red-haired, blue-eyed Scotsman, who is also referred to as a "Celt."

Germans and Balts in Northern Europe

The Germanic Indo-European tribes initially settled in what is today Denmark and southern Scandinavia around the year 4000 BC but soon moved south, closer to central Europe, later giving their name to Germany.

The Balts occupied the northern coast of the continent (giving their name to the Baltic Sea) and the Scandinavian countries.

Finland, however, has to this day retained a significant element of its original pre-Indo-European subgroup makeup.

Urnfeld and Hallstatt Cultures

From 1800 to 400 BC, Celts in southern Germany and Austria developed two advanced metal-working cultures, named by archaeologists after the places where the most plentiful artifacts were found: Urnfield and Hallstatt in Upper Austria. They introduced the use of iron for tools and weapons, and the skills developed in these cultures spread throughout Europe.

In Central Europe, the Germans also established themselves in an area running from eastern France through to Poland and south into the Balkans. It is presumed that advance parties of Germans could also have been responsible for the wave of Indo-European peoples called the Latini, who penetrated Italy around this time.

The Celts Invade Southern Europe

A tribe of Indo-Europeans called the Latini penetrated as far south as Italy, taking control of that peninsula and mixing with the existing original European populations, creating what was later to become the world's greatest empire—Rome. The Latini gave their name to the language they carried with them, Latin.

The Latini were not the only Celts to move down the Italian peninsula. Around 400 BC, another tribe of Celts invaded northern Italy, drove out an Etruscan settlement, and founded the city of Milan. In 390 BC, a Celtic army succeeded in invading the city of Rome and only left once the Romans had paid them a ransom in gold.

In southern France and Spain, the Celts met and mixed with a well-established Mediterranean population, losing much of their original Nordic physiology because of the far greater number of Mediterraneans present there.

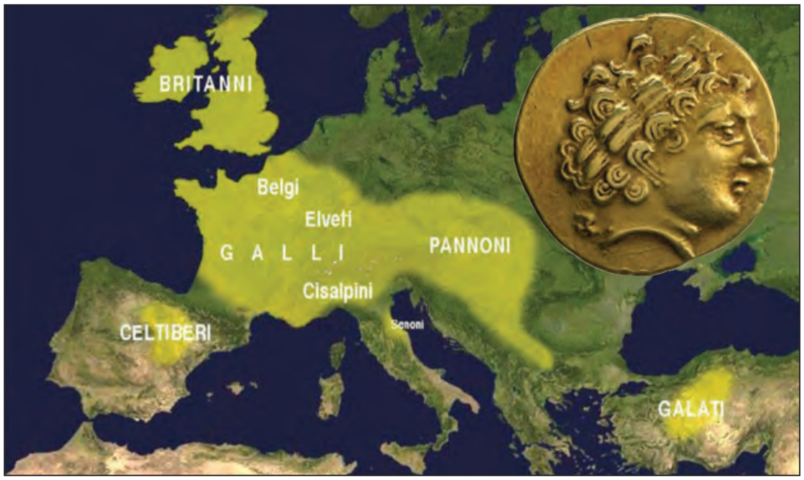
Mycenae—the First Indo-European Invaders

The Greek mainland, which was occupied by original Old European Mediterranean types, fell before an invasion of Indo-Europeans called the Mycenae. They flourished on a part of the Greek mainland known as the Peloponnesus, around 1900 BC. There is evidence that the Mycenae had contact with another invading Indo-European tribe, the Hittites, as indications of trading activity exist between these two groups.

The Mycenaeans were the forerunners of the classic Greek civilization, and although they created settlements all over Greece and neighboring territories, their most famous city was called Mycenae. The Mycenaean civilization was eclipsed around 1100 BC by a cultural shift linked to the arrival of another Indo-European tribe, the Dorians. The story of Classical Greece is highly important in Western Civilization and is told in detail in a following chapter.

The period from the time of the Dorian invasion to about 750 BC is known for the introduction of iron-working to the Grecian peninsula. The

THE CELTIC WORLD IN 300 BC



This map of the Celtic world around 300 BC shows the full extent of the Celtic invasion of Europe. This redoubtable group occupied a region which stretched from the Galatian people of Asia Minor through to the Britons in the northeast, and the majority of Gaul and central Europe, including large parts of northern Italy and western Iberia. Inset: An Iron Age gold stater coin from Gaul, dated to around the 2nd century BC. Presumed to be the head of some deity, but valuable as an indicator of racial types. (British Museum, London.)

BRONZE GODDESS SHOWS EARLY GERMANIC TYPE, 250 BC

The racial makeup of early German tribes is illustrated by this bronze head of the Celtic goddess, Rosemetra, circa 250 BC, (Mittelrheinisches Landesmuseum Mainz, Germany).

time of the Dorian Age is known to historians as the Homeric Age because little is known about it except from the writings of the poet Homer, in his epics *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey.* By those accounts, Homeric man was warlike, brave, and desirous of hardship—and it seems he experienced all three (war, bravery, and hardship) in abundance. The economies of the time were subsistence agricultural systems with tribal kings and advisors drawn from noble families.

It was at about this time that the city-state was started. Each city had an elevated fortified site known as its *acropolis*—where the city's important inhabitants could take refuge or gather to worship their gods. In time, the place directly below the acropolis developed a residential and trading area known as the *asty.*

The asty and the acropolis combined under one central jurisdictional rule, and this unit became known as the *polis.* The very word politics is derived from this Greek word.

The Slavs—from the Cauldron of Conflict

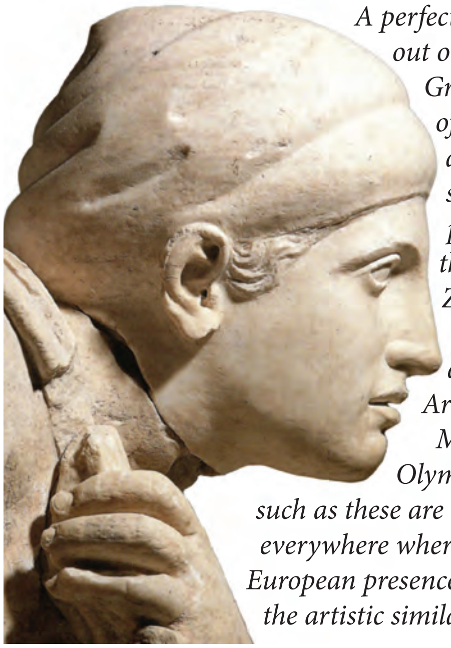
The Slavs were the one migratory group who settled closest to the ancestral Indo-European homelands in southern Russia. The land they settled—today known as Ukraine and Byelorussia ("White" Russia)—was ideal for cereal farming, and this encouraged the settlers to turn to agriculture rather than war or conquest.

By 1000 BC, they had started to move westward, occupying territory around the Vistula River, in present-day Poland.

Around 700 BC, the whole region was conquered by yet another Indo-European tribe, the Scythians, who appeared from the south (where another branch of that tribe had penetrated into Asia Minor and the Middle East).

By 200 BC, the Scythians had mastered much of the area, easily conquering the agricultural Slavic farmers. However, by 100 BC another Indo-European invader, a tribe called the Sarmatians, had replaced the Scythians as masters of the Slavic lands, and the last of the Scythian peoples were absorbed into the new Indo-European conquerors, the two groups being almost racially identical. By 600 AD, another tribe of Indo-Europeans, the Goths, swept down from northern Europe and conquered the Sarmatians, taking possession of the lands in eastern Europe. This repeated conquering and reconquering by peoples who were all essentially of the same stock—Indo-European—created the mix known as the Slavs. Originally, then, the Slavs were a pure Indo-European people.

A PERFECT FACE: OLYMPIA, GREECE, 440 BC



A perfect face looks out over Classical Greece's center of Olympia: a detail from a statue on the pediment of the Temple of Zeus, built in 440 BC. On display at the Archaeological Museum of Olympia. Images such as these are to be found everywhere where the Indo-European presence was felt, as the artistic similarities show.

Later, a small number of the Slavic population mixed with Mongoloid conquerors, creating a number of mixed-race peoples who quite incorrectly have come to be regarded as "Slavic." They are nothing of the sort, and true Slavs are as European as any other subgroup, despite much early twentieth-century propaganda, from German nationalists in particular, to the contrary.

Probably because of their proximity to the ancient homeland in southern Russia, the tribes that eventually formed the Slavs retained the cultural traits of their ancestors the longest. The Indo-European sun worship religion persisted right into the twelfth century among the Slavs, and principal among their gods was a hammer-wielding deity who rode in a chariot—obviously sharing a common mythological ancestry with the Scandinavian god, Thor.

As the Roman Empire began to unravel at the seams, the Slavs started moving westward, first penetrating into the Balkan Peninsula, and then into central Europe. By 650 AD, the Slavs had seized the coastline along the Adriatic Sea opposite

SLAVIC RELIGION ECHOES NORSE, GREEK, AND ROMAN RELIGIONS

A reconstructed pre-Christian Slavic temple at the Gross Raden Archaeological Open-Air Museum, eastern Germany. The striking similarity of this building to the more well-known Viking "longhouses" is not the only indication of a common cultural heritage between the Slavs and other Indo-Europeans. The chief Slavic deity, Svarog, is the equivalent of the Greek god Hephaestus, and the Roman god Vulcan, and the Norse god Brokkr, all gods of the iron-working blacksmith.

Italy (today's Albania). They later penetrated as far south as Turkey, where they were eventually swallowed up into a larger mixed-race mass of Turkic peoples who occupied that region.

The Slavs in eastern Europe not only bore the brunt of the Mongoloid Hunnish invasion of Europe but were also occupied for nearly one thousand years by the Ottoman Turks, as detailed later in this work.

Celtic Innovations—Chain Mail and Soap

The Roman conquest of southeastern Europe, France, and Britain effectively destroyed the Celtic cultural heritage. The Celts were not as literate as the Romans and thus had fewer organizational skills or abilities than their conquerors. However, the Celts were the inventors of chain-link armor, iron horseshoes, and seamless iron tires for their chariots. Another important Celtic innovation was soap.

In their art forms, the intricacy of which has become legendary, the links the Celts had with other Indo-European tribes are revealed. Celtic patterns are characterized by a preference for stylized plant motifs, usually of Greek origin, and fantastic animals, derived from the Scythians and other Russian steppe Indo-Europeans. Other favorite designs were elliptical curves and opposing curves, spirals, and chevrons, also derived from Russian steppe art. Almost all of the original Indo-Europeans worshiped the sun, and the sun-wheel image, a circle with a cross through it, dominated many designs.

The modern Celtic cross, regarded today as a Christian symbol, was directly copied from this original Indo-European root and was originally a pagan symbol. Today, Celtic, as a language, has survived only at the extreme ends of the area occupied by the Celts: Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

The Original European Religion

The influence of the Indo-European gods was such that their names and some of the customs associated with their worship live on to this day.

Many of the original Indo-European gods' names were either taken over by Christianity (*Hel*, the name of the goddess of the underworld, was, for example, taken over directly by Christianity) or were kept in various forms, so that five of the seven days of the modern week are named after them, as detailed below.

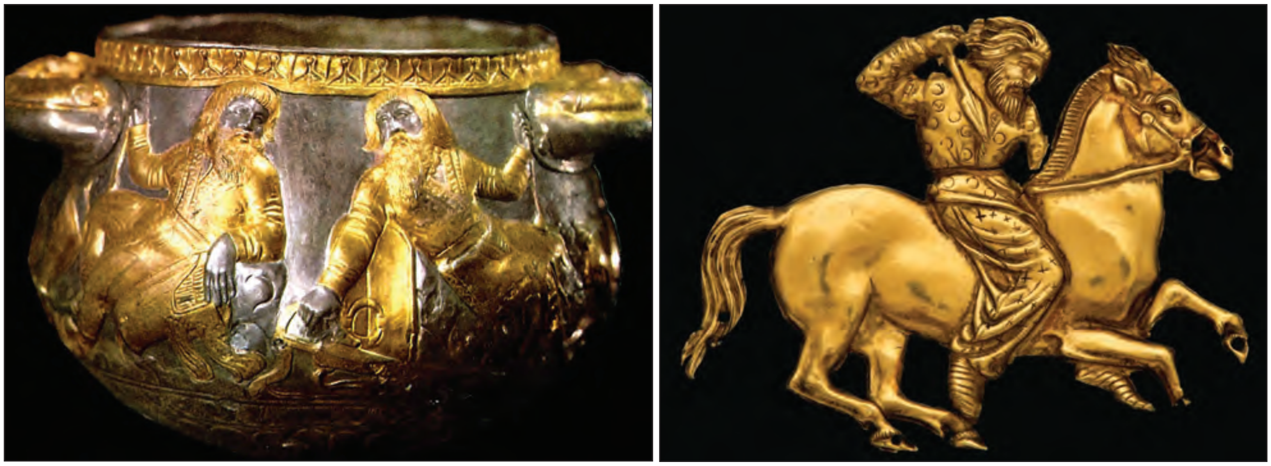
That this is so should not be surprising: these gods were the main religion of the white people of Europe for at least six thousand years, compared to the less than one thousand years that Christianity has existed in northern Europe to date.

Norse, Greek, and Roman Gods—Similarities

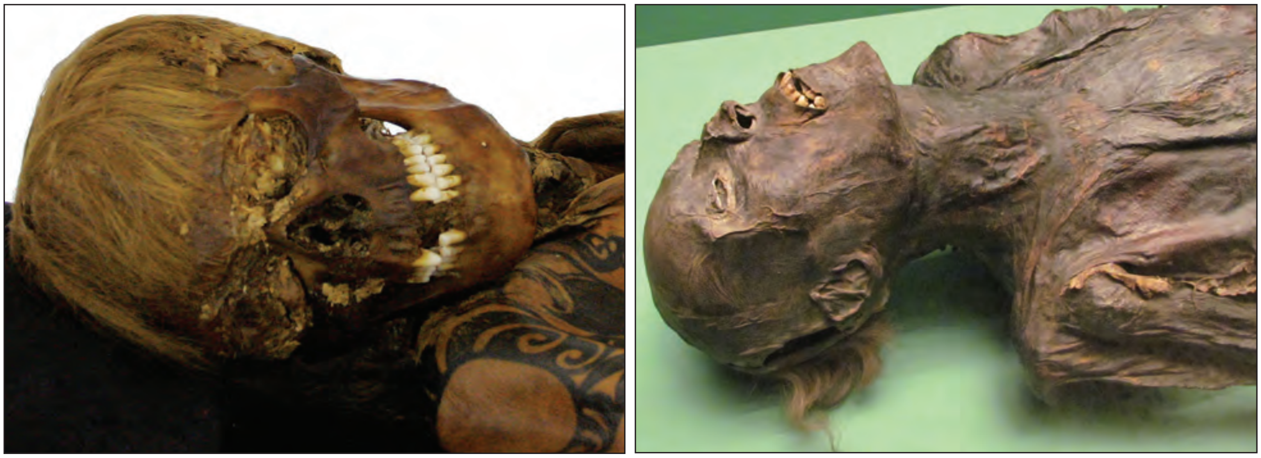
Many of the gods of these three religious systems were, for all practical purposes, identical, serving very distinct roles and purposes—and very often even had very similar names. Some examples include the Gods of War, which were Ares (Greek), Mars (Roman), Tyr (Norse); the Gods of Wisdom, which were Athena (Greek), Minerva (Roman), Odin (Norse); the Gods of the Sky and Thunder, which were Zeus (Greek), Jupiter (Roman), Thor (Norse); and the Gods of Love and Beauty, which were Aphrodite (Greek), Venus (Roman), and Freyja (Norse). There are many more such examples.

The Indo-European religious beliefs followed the movement of those people to the east as well, and similar Gods can also be found as far east as India to present day.

NORDIC INVADERS FROM THE STEPPES SWEEP THROUGH EASTERN EUROPE, NORTH MIDDLE EAST



Above: Scythians, as depicted by themselves on a steel bowl (left), and a gold brooch, right, found in grave sites near the Black Sea. The Scythian area of influence stretched from Russia into eastern Europe and even the northern regions of the Middle East. Like most Indo-Europeans, they were eventually overwhelmed and absorbed into the mixed-race population of the Middle East.



Above: Two Scythian mummies, preserved in the Hermitage Museum, St. Petersburg, Russia. The bodies were recovered from the Pazyryk Iron Age tombs found in the Pazyryk Valley of the Ukok plateau in the Altai Mountains, Siberia, south of the modern city of Novosibirsk, Russia.

Weekdays Named after the Indo-European Gods

The full extent of the cultural legacy left by the Indo-European religions is possibly most keenly felt in the names of the days of the week. These names are common in most European languages.

Sunday: Named after the Norse goddess *Sól (“sun”).* The Roman version was *Sol Invictus.*

Monday, or “day of the moon,” is named after the Norse god Máni (“Moon”).

Tuesday is named after the Norse god of war and justice, *Tyr* (or *Tir*). This day is still called *Tisdag* in Sweden and *Tirsdag* in Denmark.

Wednesday is named after *Wodan*, or *Wotan/Odin* (*Wodansday*). In Sweden and Denmark, the day is called *Onsdag.* Thursday is named after the Norse god of thunder, *Thor (Thorsday).*

Friday is named after the Norse goddess of love and beauty, *Frigg* (or *Frigga*), who was the wife of Odin, while Saturday is named after the Roman god of agriculture and time, *Saturn* (“dies Saturni”).

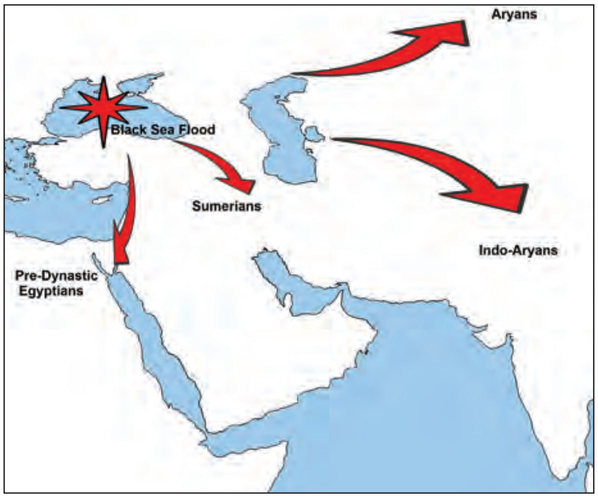
The Roman names for the days of the week were originally associated with the seven classical planets, which included the Sun, Moon, Mars, Mercury, Jupiter, Venus, and Saturn. When Germanic and Norse cultures adopted the seven-day week, they replaced some of the Roman deities with their own corresponding gods and goddesses, leading to the names we have today.

Chapter 8: Born of the Black Sea— The Indo-European Invasions of the East

The flooding of the Black Sea also sparked off Indo-European migrations to the East. In this way, regions as far afield as Egypt, India, and Afghanistan were impacted, and, of course, the Near Middle East as well.

One notable group of Indo-Europeans called themselves “Aryans,” meaning “noble,” and it was this tribe in particular who invaded northern India and Afghanistan. The name “Aryan” is still commonly used in India, and was in regular use in the West as a term to describe the Nordic subgroup in particular, until its use by Adolf Hitler and the National Socialists in Germany. Since then, the word “Aryan” has been demonized in the West, although it was never actually an accurate racial term in the first place. Nonetheless, the names of many present-day countries in the Middle East are directly derived from the word “Aryan,” such as Iran, Iraq, and even Afghanistan, which was originally called “Aryana.”

BLACK SEA FLOOD CAUSES INDO-EUROPEAN MIGRATION 5600 BC



The flooding of the Black Sea (see the previous chapter) also caused a wave of Indo-European invasions to occur in the South-East. In the south, they settled in pre-dynastic Egypt, and in the Middle East, they helped form the core of a white population which came into increasing conflict with the growing Semitic population. Other Indo-European tribes reached India (the “Indo-Aryans”), and even Afghanistan (the “Aryans”).

Assimilation in the West, Submersion in the East

The great difference between the western and eastern migrations of the Indo-Europeans was that in the West, they found genetically similar populations with whom they mixed, while in the East, they mixed with, and were eventually submerged by, genetically dissimilar peoples.

Notable Indo-European Invaders of the East

Some of the more notable Indo-European tribes who invaded the Middle East were:

— The Amorites were an Indo-European tribe who invaded Asia Minor (Turkey) from the Aegean Sea around 1500 BC and were noted among the local people for worshipping a hammer-wielding “Thunder God”—obviously related to the northern European Thor. Egyptian paintings of the time depict the Amorites (whom they called the “Amurru”) as fair, light-eyed men with Nordic features. They were still launching attacks on the Egyptian state as late as 1300 BC. A number of Amorites settled in Palestine, becoming one of the first Indo-European tribes to mix with the Semitic Jewish tribes in that region and later became associated with Semitism.

— The Scythians overran what is today Palestine, Israel, and Lebanon in the seventh century BC, and some of their light-eyed and light-haired descendants can still be found among the Druse peoples of Lebanon.

The Scythians moved through Asia as far as Afghanistan, with forward groups penetrating to the Indus River in India. Many early writers such as Polemon of Ilium, Clement of Alexandria, and others recorded that the Scythians were similar to the Celts in appearance, always being described as "fair or ruddy" in hue.

— The Philistines were an Indo-European tribe who also invaded the Middle East, coming from Crete and bearing many cultural similarities to the Mycenaean culture. The Philistines established an unpopular iron rule over the Jewish tribes they found in the region.

— The Cimmerians were a smaller Indo-European tribe who reached the Middle East around the eighth century BC and established a short-lived kingdom in the region known today as northern Iran.

— The Phrygians reached present-day Armenia around the eighth century BC and established another short-lived kingdom.

— Around 900 BC, yet another Indo-European tribe, known as the Persians, reached Azerbaijan, from where they entered present-day Iran, followed closely by the Indo-European Medes tribe. The Persians, who were more numerous, overpowered the Medes, and together these two tribes established what became known as the Persian Empire, ruling over a large number of Asiatic and Semitic racial types.

Indo-European Language Spreads

The proto-Indo-European language spread out with the Indo-European peoples and forms the basis of all languages spoken all the way from India to Ireland. The languages survived the almost complete racial submersion of many of the Indo-European tribes from that group, primarily because of the power and dominance of their reigns in the areas of their settlement. Common Indo-European root words are still easily found in a variety of languages spoken in those regions where they left their mark.

Aryana—the Aryan Origin of Afghanistan

Around 2000 BC, a sun-worshipping Indo-European tribe calling themselves Aryans invaded central Asia and occupied territory as far north as India. In their language, Sanskrit, "Aryan" means *noble*.

Distant racial cousins of the Aryans went west, penetrating as far as Ireland, giving the name "Eire" to that land—also a derivative of the word Aryan. After 2000 BC, waves of Aryans flooded into present-day Afghanistan, setting up a nation that be-

DNA CONFIRMS THAT PHILISTINES WERE BRONZE-AGE EUROPEAN INVADERS IN PALESTINE

A skeleton uncovered in a Philistine grave in Ashkelon, southern Israel. The Philistines—a people hated in the Christian Bible as enemies of the Jews—were of European origin and were the result of a Bronze Age invasion of the region now named after them (Palestine), a DNA study in 2019 revealed. The study ("Ancient DNA sheds light on the genetic origins of early Iron Age Philistines," Feldman, M., et al., Science Advances, *Jul 2019, Vol 5, Issue 7) said that genome-wide data extracted from a number of Philistine graves showed a "genetically distinct European admixture," which, the scientists said, supports the idea that a "migration event occurred during the Bronze to Iron Age transition in Ashkelon but did not leave a long-lasting genetic signature."*

TRACES OF INDO-EUROPEAN INVADERS REMAIN FROM "ARYANA" IN MODERN AFGHANISTAN

Traces of the Indo-European invaders in Afghanistan, a country originally named "Aryana," can still be seen to the present day, as demonstrated in these photographs of Afghani children, all taken between the years 2005 and 2015. Some of these children could easily be mistaken for European natives.

came known as Aryana, or the "Land of the Aryans."

By the middle of the sixth century BC, the Persian Empire had incorporated Aryana into its boundaries, and by 330 BC, Alexander the Great had occupied the region. By this time, most of the original Aryans in Aryana had been absorbed into the local native population, although it is still possible to this day to see light-eyed and light-haired individuals among the present-day Afghan population.

During the first century AD, the Kushans, an Asiatic race, occupied Aryana, destroying the last vestiges of the original Indo-Aryan culture and race. Thereafter, Aryana fell under the rule of a large number of different non-white races, until the seventh century AD when Arab Muslim armies occupied the region. In 1220, the region was once again overrun by Mongols under Genghis Khan, who devastated the land. By this time, the people of Aryana had passed into history—and only that country's name is remembered today.

The Aryans and India

Another branch of the Aryans penetrated as far east as India, where they settled and built a civilization. Although the Aryans established a powerful white civilization in northern India, it would be incorrect to think that the native Indians had not created anything of their own. Mixed with the original white Mediterraneans, the Indus civilization created by the Harappans was already in existence by the time the Aryans invaded. The invading Aryans were more advanced and referred to the conquered Indians as the *Dasyu*—the "dark ones" or slaves. Indo-Aryan poetry (the *Rigveda* in particular) is full of stories of war against the Dasyu and reflects the stark racial divisions between the conquering Aryans and the conquered Indians.

Racial Conflict in the Rigveda

The *Rigveda,* the original holy book of the Aryan conquerors of India, contains many references to the race of the conquerors and the conquered. According to this book, the leader of the Aryan invasion was one Indra, and his role in "slaying the Dasyus" (the Negroids in India) is a prominent theme: "Thou, Indra, art the destroyer of all the cities, the slayer of the Dasyus, the prosperer of man, the lord of the sky" (RgV. VIII 87.6). It goes on to

NEGROID DEMONS IN HINDUISM

From a Hindu temple in India: In Hindu mythology, the white goddess Durga slays the Negroid demon Mahishasura. In Hindu mythology, most of the gods have white skins and European-like features, while the demons are distinctly Negroid. The Rigveda is also graphic in its description of racial conflict.

use the word "black" in a number of instances to describe the Dasyu: "Indra, the slayer of Vrittra, the destroyer of cities, has scattered the Dasyu (hosts), sprung from a black womb" (RgV. II 20.6).

The "Aryan Color" in the Rigveda

The Rigveda praises the god who "destroyed the Dasyans and protected the Aryan color" (RgV. III 34.9). It then goes on to thank the god who "bestowed on his white friends the fields, bestowed the sun, bestowed the waters" (RgV. I 100.18). Black skin is repeatedly referred to with abhorrence. Starting with a description of the "black skin" ("Krishnam Vacham") in RgV. IX 41.1, Sam. V I. 491 and II. 242, and in RgV. IX 73, it is said that "stormy gods who rush on like furious bulls and scatter the black skin," and it claims that "the black skin, the hated of Indra" will be swept out of heaven (RgV. IX 73.5).

Rg.V. I 130.8 tells how the "black skin" was conquered: "Indra protected in battle the Aryan worshiper; he subdued the lawless for Manu; he conquered the black skin." The Rigveda thanks God for "scattering the slave bands of black descent" and for stamping out "the vile Dasyan color" (Rg.V. II.20.7, II 12.4). It also contains this choice remark which sums up the Aryans' opinion of their nonwhite subjects: "Black skin is impious" (Sans., Rg.V. II. 12.4).

Other extracts from the *Rigveda* further illustrate the sharp racial divisions in this time:

— Indra 1.130.8. "Indra in battle helps his Aryan worshiper, he who hath a hundred helps at hand in every fray, in frays that win the light of heaven. Plaguing the lawless, he gave up to Manu's seed the dusky skin; Blazing, 'twere, he burns each covetous man away, he burns the tyrannous away."

— Indra 4.16.13. "Thou to the son of Vidathin, Rjisvan, gavest up mighty Mrgaya and Pipru. Thou smotest down the swarthy fifty thousand and rentest forts as age consumes a garment."

— Indra 5.29.10. "One car-wheel of the Sun thou rolledst forward, and one thou settest free to move for Kutsa. Thou slewest noseless Dasyus with thy weapon, and in their home o'erthrewest hostile speakers" ("Noseless Dasyus" would suggest a reference to flat-nosed Negroid types).

— Soma Pavamana 9.41.1. "Active and bright have they come forth, impetuous in speed like bulls, driving the black skin far away."

— Soma Pavamana 9.73.5. "O'er Sire and Mother they have roared in unison bright with the verse of praise, burning up riteless men, blowing away with supernatural might from earth and from the heavens the swarthy skin which Indra hates."

Rigveda ***Describes Aryan Gods as Blonds***

— Indra 10.23.4. "With him too is this rain of his that comes like herds: Indra throws drops of moisture on his yellow beard. When the sweet juice

BOLLYWOOD—THE LAST OF THE ARYANS

The last of India's Aryans can be found in that country's film industry, Bollywood. Above: The features of Indian actresses Pooja Bhatt (left) and Aishwarya Rai (center) contrast strongly with those of a "typical" Indian female, right.

Above: The Aryan ancestry of Indian actors Aamir Khan (left) and Shahid Kapoor (center) contrasts strongly with the more typical Indian male, alongside. The wide variety of types is typical of a racially-mixed society. Below, a crowd of low-caste Indians, in which Negroid features are discernible.

is shed, he seeks the pleasant place, and stirs the worshiper as wind disturbs the wood."

— Indra 10.96.8. "At the swift draught the Soma-drinker waxed in might, the Iron One with yellow beard and yellow hair. He, Lord of Tawny Coursers, Lord of fleet-foot Mares, will bear his Bay Steeds safely over all distress."

— Indra 1.9.3. "O Lord of all men, fair of cheek, rejoice thee in the gladdening lauds, present at these drink-offerings."

In what could easily be another indicator of the common cultural origins between the Rigveda and the Indo-European gods, Indra's greatest weapon is said, in the Hindu holy book, to be a lightning bolt—identical to the weapon of Thor, the northern European god:

— Indra 1.100.18. "He, much invoked, hath slain Dasyus and Simyus, after his wont, and laid them low with arrows. The mighty Thunderer with his fair-complexioned friends won the land."

— Indra 1.101.1. "Sing, with oblation, praise to him who maketh glad, who with Rjisvan drove the dusky brood away. Fain for help, him the strong whose right hand wields the bolt, him girt by Maruts we invoke to be our Friend."

— Indra 1.103.3 and 4. "Armed with his bolt and trusting in his prowess he wandered, shattering the forts of Dasas. Cast thy dart, knowing, Thunderer, at the Dasyu; increase the Arya's might and glory, Indra. For him who thus hath taught these human races, Maghavan, bearing a fame-worthy title, Thunderer, drawing nigh to slay the Dasyus, hath given himself the name of Son for glory."

Aryan Origin of Caste System

At the time of the writing of the Rigveda, a clear distinction was drawn between the two types of people in the Indus River Valley: the "fair" conquering immigrants and the "dark" native people. Within three hundred years, however, physical mixing had proceeded to the point where these two racial classes had been further subdivided.

Membership in each class was determined solely by the color of an individual's skin. This came to be known as the caste system. The word "caste" was the term given by Portuguese travelers many centuries later, derived from the Latin word *castus,* meaning pure.

As assimilation and integration between the Aryans and the Dasyu increased, the caste system became more and more complex until four major divisions were created, with membership in each group dependent upon the coloring of the individual. This four-tier system still exists in India today, with the highest caste, the Brahmans (or "priests"), being the lightest in color, and the Sudras or "untouchables" being the darkest.

Within a few hundred years, the original Aryans had become so assimilated that their contribution to Indian civilization can be considered to have ended. Their legacy lives on in the language, religion, and poetry of India—and the caste system. Blue or gray eyes can, however, still be found in

HOW FAR EAST INTO ASIA DID THE INDO-EUROPEANS PENETRATE?

Just how far the Indo-Europeans penetrated into what is today regarded as the Far East may never be fully known—but there are small indications afforded by the occasional appearance of "genetic throwbacks" apparent in these Oirat Mongols from the Altai region of western Mongolia.

the Indian upper classes, which tend to be concentrated in the northern parts of that country, where the original Aryan settlement took place. Many of these lighter-colored Indians become successful actors and actresses in India's film industry, which is nicknamed "Bollywood."

In accordance with the caste system, the more European-looking the actors, the more successful they tend to be. Genetic studies conducted in India have confirmed the Indo-European invasion and the considerable genetic gap between the castes.

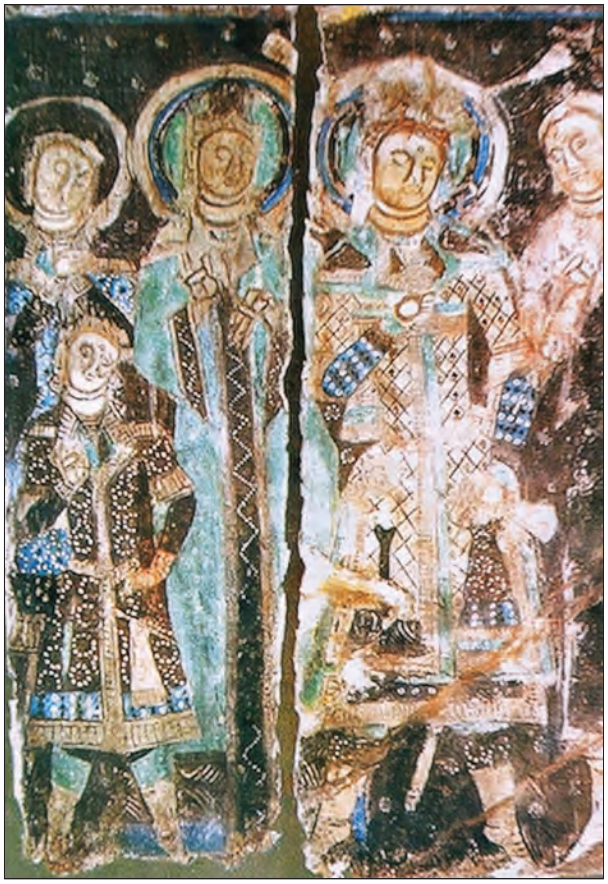
Speculation on How Far East the Indo-Europeans Reached

It remains a matter of speculation as to exactly how far east the Indo-European invasions reached. The occasional appearance of European features—light-colored hair or eyes—in populations such as the Mongols in northeastern China (see examples illustrated in this chapter) has served to heighten the speculation in this regard. However, it was only in 2010 that a European genetic presence in the far east of China was definitively confirmed by a paper published in the journal *Molecular Biology and Evolution.*[1]

That study revealed that research conducted on DNA sequences from "three populations that lived in the same location, Linzi, China, in different periods: 2,500 years ago (the Spring–Autumn era), 2,000 years ago (the Han era), and the present day," showed that the genetic backgrounds of the three populations were completely distinct from each other—and that the oldest one, that of the 2,500-year-old Linzi population, "showed greater genetic similarity to present-day European populations than to present-day East Asian populations."

The 2,000-year-old Linzi population had features that were intermediate between the present-day European/2,500-year-old Linzi populations and the present-day East Asian populations. This, the paper concluded, "indicates that there was a genetic shift in the Linzi area from a European-like population to a population more like those found in present-day East Asia, probably caused by migration. This is in accord with the existence of the Eurasiatic superfamily languages, which surround a linguistically unique Sino-Tibetan language, the present-day Chinese language."

BLOND-HAIRED ROYAL TOCHARIAN FAMILY



A blond-haired royal family from the Tocharian city of Kucha, which was one of the largest cities in the Tarim Basin, circa 500 AD. Image from the Kizil Caves, Xinjiang, China (State Hermitage Museum, Saint Petersburg, Russia).

The Tocharians—Ancient Whites in Western China

Chinese legends and writings have always contained stories of blue-eyed and blond-haired leaders who were the originators of Buddhism and the first leaders and organizers of Chinese society. These stories were always regarded as pure legend until the 1977 discovery of the graveyards of the Tocharians near the ruins of great cities built along what became known as the famous "Silk Road" to China.

These people, called Tocharians after the name of their language, were known by the language they spoke: Tocharian. The civilization they built con-

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[1] "Genetic Structure of a 2,500-Year-Old Human Population in China and Its Spatiotemporal Changes," (Wang, L., et al., *Molecular Biology and Evolution,* Volume 17, Issue 9, September 2000, Pages 1396–1400.

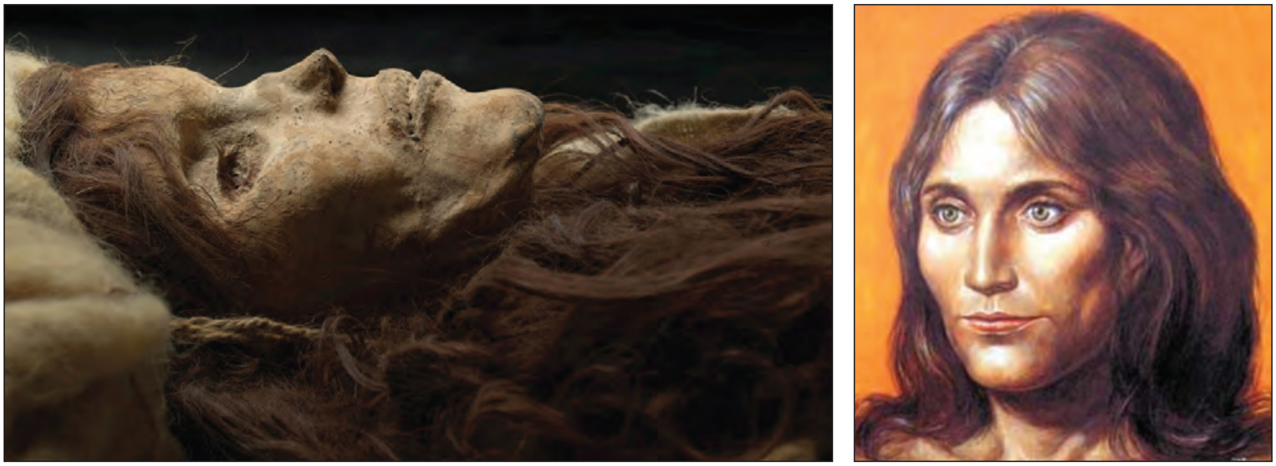
TOCHARIAN MAN, WESTERN CHINA, 1500 BC

A close-up of a three thousand-year-old, unmistakably white, Tocharian male, one of many unearthed from the graveyards in the Takla Makan Desert in western China. (Xinjiang Museum, Urumqi, China).

LONG BLOND BRAIDS ON TOCHARIAN FEMALES IN ANCIENT CHINA

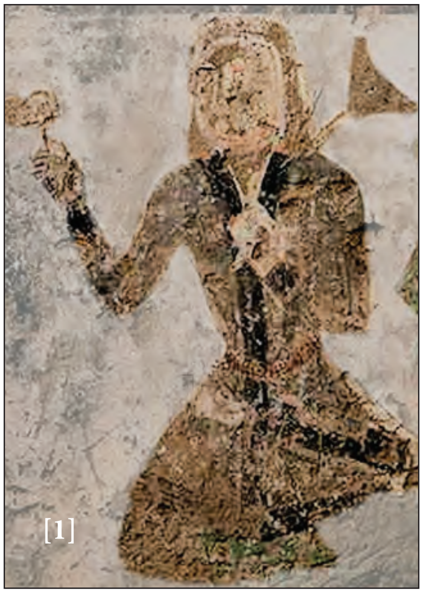
Far left: A Tocharian female mummy with long, flaxen blond hair perfectly preserved in ponytails, and alongside, with her face reconstructed by an artist. She has been dated to at least 1500 BC and was discovered in the Zagunluq Cemetery, Takla Makan Desert. The Tocharians are responsible for the now-deserted ruins of the "Silk Road cities" and are also credited with bringing Buddhism, horses, the saddle, and iron-working to China.

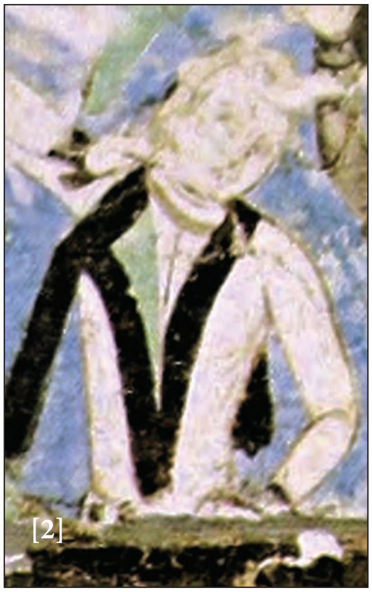
THE TOCHARIAN “BEAUTY OF LOULAN” RECONSTRUCTED BY UYGHUR SEPARATISTS

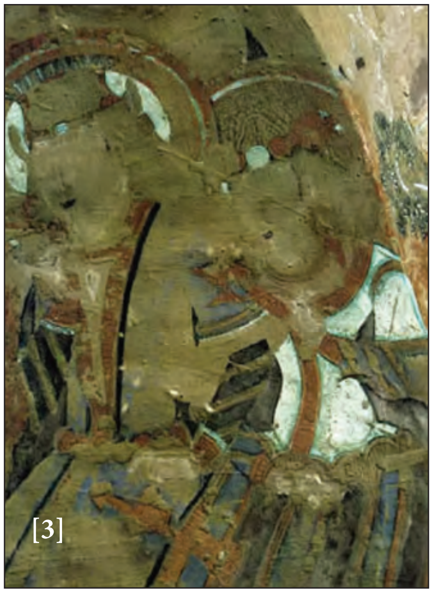


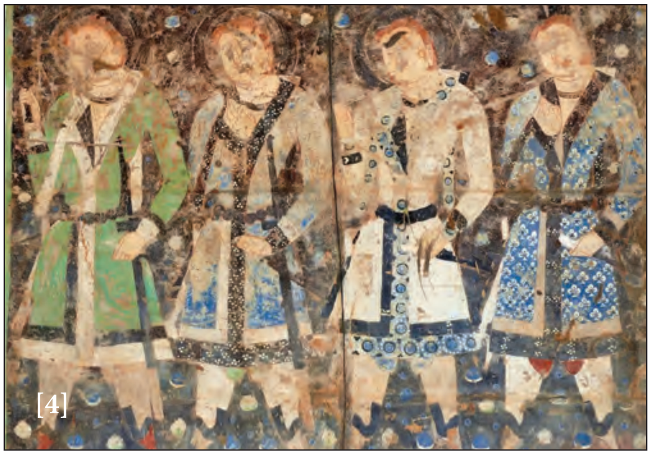
A mummy known as the “beauty of Loulan,” discovered in 1980 in Loulan, has been widely used by Uyghur separatists to promote their drive for independence from China. Above left, the “beauty of Loulan,” and right, as reconstructed and used in Uyghur separatist literature in the region.

KIZIL CAVE PAINTINGS SHOW BLOND TOCHARIANS AS LATE AS 600 AD









The Kizil Caves are located in Xinjiang province, China, and date from around 300 AD. The cut rock cave walls are richly decorated and frequently portray the Tocharian subjects with distinctly European features. [1] A Tocharian, circa 300 AD, as depicted in the “Cave of the Hippocampi.” (Cave number 118). [2] A Tocharian prince, “Maya Cave.” (Cave number 224). [3] The Tocharian King Suvarnapushpa and his wife. King of the town of Kucha, circa 600 AD. He was known in Chinese with a prefix meaning “white,” in reference to his complexion. (Cave number 69). [4] Tocharian knights, circa 600 AD. (Cave number 16).

UYGHURS OF CHINA'S XINJIANG PROVINCE STILL SHOW TRACES OF EUROPEAN ORIGIN

Most present-day residents of the region surrounding the Takla Makan desert are of mixed racial origin and could best be described as Turkic rather than East Asian, even though they clearly show some Asiatic traits. It is still possible to see genetic "flashbacks" among the Uyghur population, as illustrated above.

sisted of great cities, temples, and centers of learning and art. The first mummy in the region was discovered by accident in 1977 after shifting sands uncovered a female corpse whose body had been mutilated, presumably in some act of war.

Excavation around her corpse uncovered a further sixteen mummies, so perfectly preserved by the desert that traces of tears were found on the face of a mummified infant. Fully dressed bodies were found wearing finely woven woolen textiles with Celtic-style patterns, leather shoes, and jewelry. The desert conditions proved so exceptional that even pieces of bread used as offerings were preserved intact alongside what is the world's oldest saddle. In one grave, excavators discovered a saddle cover and a pair of trousers with drawings of humans on one leg—one face had blue eyes.

DNA Studies Confirm European Origin

As if the physical appearance of the mummies was not enough, a number of genetic studies have confirmed the Indo-European origins of the Tocharians. A 2010 analysis of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA, passed down unchanged from mother to daughter) showed the presence of the European mtDNA haplogroups H and K, along with the East Asian mtDNA Haplogroup C. Y-Chromosome analysis showed that the only Y-Haplogroup present in the male mummies was the European haplogroup R1a1a.[2]

A similar 2015 study confirmed the presence of the European mtDNA haplogroups H and K, and the presence of Asian mtDNA haplogroups in the female mummies.[3]

A 2021 study on male mummies dated to c. 2100-1700 BC confirmed the presence of the European Y-haplogroups R1b1b and R1-PF6136 (xR1a, xR1b1a).[4]

In 2022, another study[5] claimed that the Tocharians were an "isolated group" in the region but still confirmed that out of the six DNA samples from which Y-chromosomes were extracted, four were the European Y-Haplogroup R1 and its subclades.

Chinese Leaders with Blue and Green Eyes

The new finds are forcing a reexamination of old Chinese books that describe historical or legendary figures of great height, with deep-set blue or green eyes, long noses, full beards, and red or blond hair. Scholars had once scoffed at these references, but it now transpires that they were correct. One of these accounts can be found in the song to the great General Lü by the Chinese poet Li He (circa 790–816 AD) in his "Romance of the Three Kingdoms."

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[2] "Evidence that a West-East admixed population lived in the Tarim Basin as early as the early Bronze Age," Li, C., et al., *BMC Biology,* 2010; 8: 15.

[3] "Analysis of ancient human mitochondrial DNA from the Xiaohe cemetery: Insights into prehistoric population movements in the Tarim Basin, China," Li, C., et al., *BMC Genetics.* 16: 78., 2015.

[4] "The genomic origins of the Bronze Age Tarim Basin mummies," Zhang, F., et al., *Nature,* volume 599, pp. 256–261 (2021).

[5] "Bronze and Iron Age population movements underlie Xinjiang population history," Kumar, V., et al., Science, 31 Mar 2022, Vol 376, Issue 6588, pp. 62-69.

SCYTHIANS: DNA SHOWS EASTWARD CLINE TO ASIA

A battle scene atop a Scythian gold comb found at the Solokha kurgan (430-390 BC), near the present-day town of Nikopol in central Ukraine. DNA studies have revealed that as the Scythians moved eastward, they absorbed larger and larger amounts of Asian genetics until finally they were completely absorbed and disappeared as a distinct group.

> *General Lü, The valiant-hearted,*
> *Riding alone on Scarlet Hare,*
> *Out of the gates of Ch'in,*
> *To weep at Gold Grain Mound by funeral trees.*
> *Inscrutable that vaulted azure,*
> *Arching over earth,*
> *This is the way the world wags*
> *In our Nine Provinces.*
> *Gleaming ore from Scarlet Hill!*
> *Hero of our time!*
> ***Green-eyed general,** you well know*
> *The will of Heaven! (*Emphasis added).[6]

The Disappearance of the Tocharians

Over time, these white people mixed with the neighboring Mongoloid tribes and slowly vanished from history as a distinct group. The physical features of the people currently living in western China clearly show both white and Mongoloid traits, with blond hair not being unknown.

Thus, it was that the white civilization of ancient China vanished through racial mixing, with only the crumbling ruins of their cities and their corpses remaining as silent witnesses.

Scythians: Textbook Example of the Fall of a Civilization through Racial Assimilation

The fate of the Scythians serves as a textbook example of what occurred to almost all the Indo-European invaders of the Middle and Far East. A 2012 analysis[7] of the remains of ancient Scythian warriors living over 2,000 years ago in the Altai region of Mongolia found that there had been significant Asian admixture to the original Scythian gene pool in that region. The results obtained demonstrated that the population from the Iron Age, corresponding to the time when the Scythian culture resided in the Altai Mountains, had a perfect blend (50%) of European and Asian mitochondrial DNA lineages or sequences.

The discovery is relevant, taking into account that previous populations showed no signs of lineage mixture: the DNA analyzed in the tombs located in Russia and Kazakhstan belongs to European lineages, whereas DNA from the eastern part, in Mongolia, contains Asian lineages.

Significantly, the study pointed out that what it called the "blending" was not due to an eastward migration of Europeans, but to a demographic expansion of local Central Asian populations—thanks to the technological improvements the Scythian culture brought with them.

The study said that the Asian population adopted the Scythian culture, which was technologically and socially more advanced, and this made them improve demographically by favoring their expansion and contact with Europeans.

In other words, the numerically inferior but technologically and societally superior Scythians were overrun after sharing their technology and culture with the Asians.

This then was the pattern repeated almost everywhere in the East, to the point where there are only small pockets of Indo-Europeans left, and only occasional flashes of Indo-European genetics in the physical appearance of the present-day populations of those regions.

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[6] Translation from *Goddesses, Ghosts, and Demons—The Collected Poems of Li He* (790–816), Translated by J.D. Frodsham, North Point Press, San Francisco, 1983.

[7] "Tracing the Origin of the East-West Population Admixture in the Altai Region (Central Asia)," González-Ruiz, M., et al., *PLoS ONE,* November 9, 2012; 7 (11): e48904.

Chapter 9: Inexorably Overwhelmed—

Whites in the Middle East

The story of the Middle East—a region which encompasses the territory that stretches east from the present day state of Turkey, to Iran, and all the nations in-between—is dominated by centuries of physical struggle between successive waves of white and semitic invaders. Each group established civilizations which in turn were overrun by their rivals, or, just as often, by a racially similar tribe.

Present-Day Middle East is Racially-Mixed

From a racial point of view, it is worth noting that the present-day population of the Middle East is the product of the mixing of original Old European Mediterranean whites, an Indo-European invader element, Semites, a small Asiatic input, and a number of Africans dating from the time of the Arab Slave Trade.

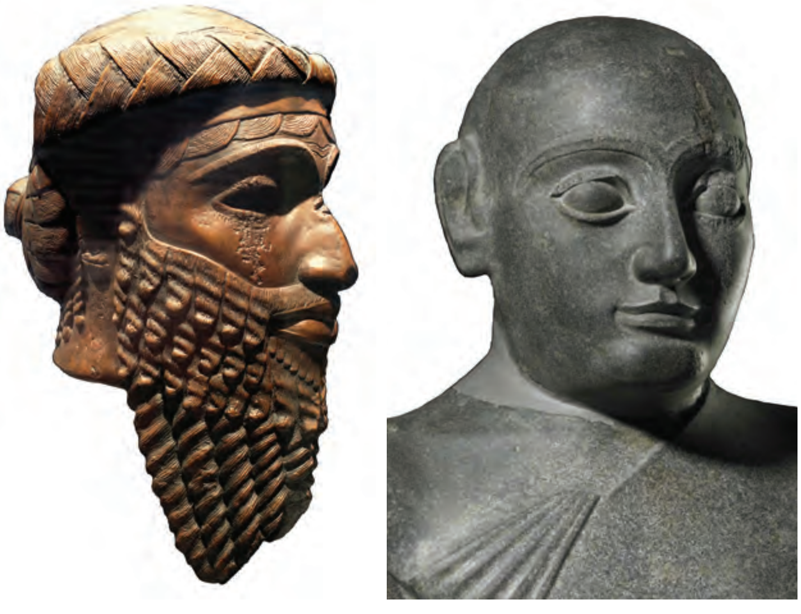
It is this mix which has created the population of the modern "Middle East," and which has resulted in a wide display of phenotypes, ranging from the very dark to near European, or in some cases, overtly European.[1]

Eventually, through sheer numbers, the Semitic races came to dominate the entire region. Originating in their heartland of the Saudi Arabian Peninsula, the Semitic peoples—themselves divided up into different tribes, the most famous of which came to be called Jews—started penetrating the Middle East from late Neolithic times onwards.

In this way, control of the Mesopotamian river valley—a center point of civilization in the Middle East—swung between these groups for thousands of years, with each successive invasion bringing with it an impetus of new blood and culture.

For a long period, the white groups—made up of original European types and later Indo-European tribes—were able to hang on to the

BUSTS CONTRAST RACIAL TYPES IN THE ANCIENT MIDDLE EAST



These two busts serve to illustrate the contrasting racial types who struggled for supremacy in the Middle East. Left, a bronze of an Akkadian ruler, supposedly that of Sargon, was discovered in the city of Nineveh, Upper Sumeria, and is dated to around 2270 BC. (Rijksmuseum van Oudheden, Leiden, Netherlands). Compare this face with that of the governor of the province of Lagash, Gudea, dating from circa 2150–2050 BC. (British Museum, London, UK).

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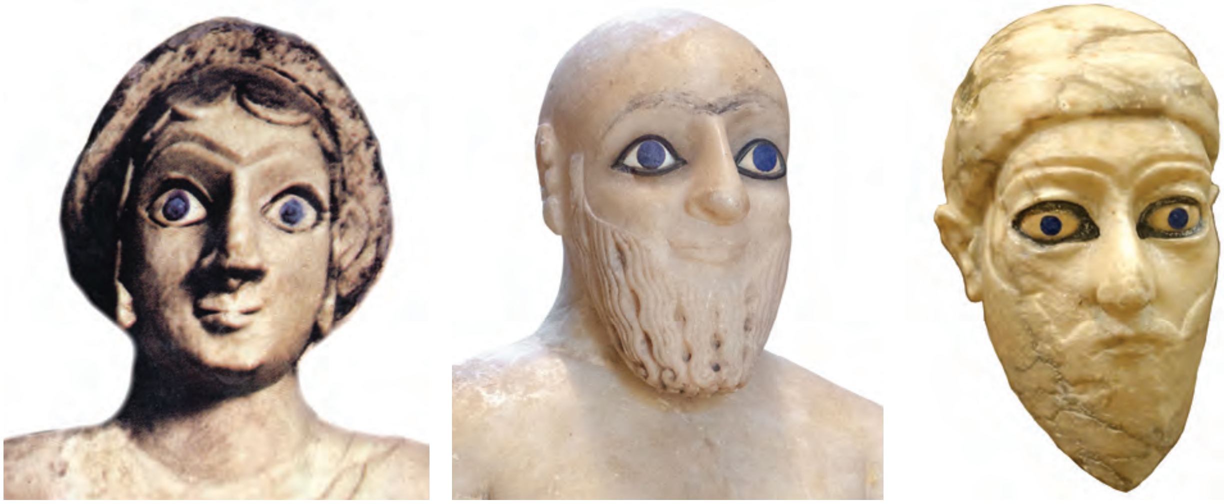
[1] In this way, for example, DNA testing in the country of Iraq has shown that the population is made up of a vast array of Y-Chromosome Haplotypes (J1, E1b1b, J2a1b, J2, R1a, R1b, J2b, UP, G2a, L, Q, T, E1a, I2, I2b1, E1b1a, J2a1, N, O3, R2) which indicate a highly racially mixed population with elements from literally almost every region in Europe, the Middle East and Asia. ("Population genetic diversity in an Iraqi population and gene flow across the Arabian Peninsula," Lazim, H. et al., *Scientific Reports,* volume 10, 2020, Article number: 15289).

“BLUE-EYED” STATUES FROM ANCIENT SUMERIA



It was common practice for the ancient Sumerians to have statues of themselves made with realistic features, and in particular, with their eye color shown in the choice of colored stone. For this purpose, they used the blue stone lapis lazuli, which they highly prized and imported from its only source some 3,200 kilometers away in northern Afghanistan. Above left: Statue of a Sumerian female with inlaid lapis lazuli blue stone eye coloring. Early Dynastic Period, 2600–2370 BC. Found at a temple in the Diyala Region, Tell Asmar, Sumeria. (Iraq Museum, Baghdad, Iraq). Center: A statue of Ebih-Il, the leader of the ancient city-state of Mari, circa 2600 BC. Right: Gypsum head of a ruler with inlaid lapis lazuli blue eyes, from Bismaya, an ancient Sumerian city between Telloh and Nippur. Dated to circa 2100 BC. (Oriental Institute Museum, Chicago, USA).

higher lands to the northeast of the Tigris/Euphrates River basin, while various Semitic tribes steadily occupied other parts of the Middle East.

As a result of this continual crossover of civilizations and shared geographical area, the racial distinctions of the peoples became blurred. Toward the close of this epoch, it becomes more difficult to identify clear racial groups as opposed to named cultures.

Ultimately, the disappearance of the distinct racial groups in the region led to the torch of civilization being passed to what were then more homogeneous societies—first in Egypt, and then to the classical Greek and Roman civilizations.

Sumeria—First White Settlement

The region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers is commonly called the Fertile Crescent because of the closeness of fresh water supplies.

However, the term is a misnomer. Rainfall in the region has always been sparse, and large parts of this region are arid desert.

The region was, contrary to popular myth, never ideal farming territory, and the dryness was only alleviated in part due to the proximity of the river water and a clever system of canals. In spite of this, by the year 5000 BC, original Mediterranean whites and some early Indo-European tribes (together known as Ubaidians) established settlements in the Tigris and Euphrates River basin.

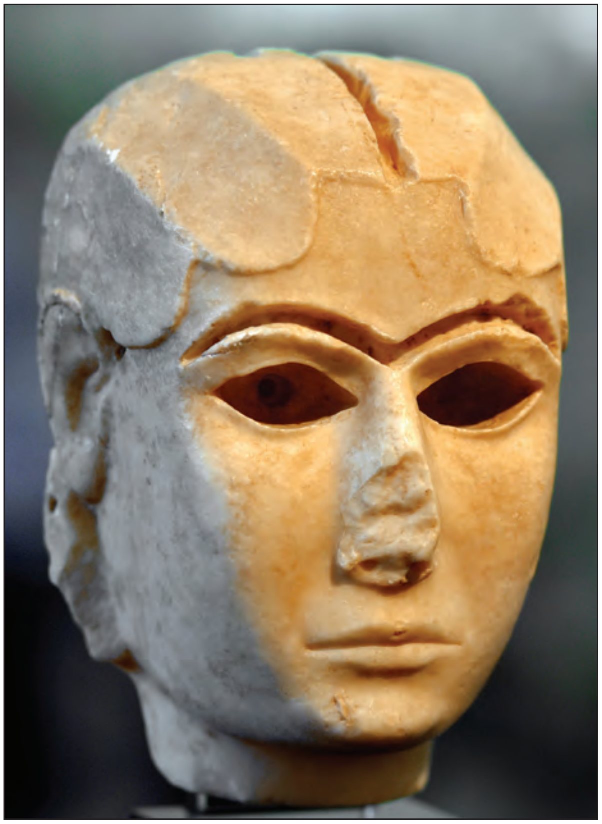
These settlements gradually developed into the chief cities of the region. In the present day, this territory is within the borders of the country of Iraq.

Second White Invasion 3250 BC

These original whites were conquered by a new white tribe, the Sumerians, in 3250 BC. These people gave their name to the region: Sumer. In the centuries that followed their immigration, the country grew rich and powerful. Art and architecture, crafts, and religious and ethical thought flourished.

The Sumerian language became the prevailing speech of the land and their system of writing, wherein pictures were used to represent objects, set the standard for all written languages of the time. Although initially very basic—a stick drawing of a fish would represent a fish and so on—this written language laid the basis for all pictographic languages, including the later Egyptian and Sanskrit forms.

MASK OF WARKA, 3000 BC



The Mask of Warka, a marble bust dating from circa 3000 BC. Often referred to as the first complete life-size depiction of the human face in history, it is no coincidence that the bust displays distinctly European features, particularly in the lower face and lips. It was discovered in 1939 during an archaeological dig at a temple dedicated to the Sumerian goddess of love, war, and fertility, Inanna, at the ancient Sumerian city of Uruk, today called Warka. (Iraq Museum, Baghdad).

Writing was done on clay tablets with impressions being made by wedge-shaped instruments. This pictographic writing eventually developed symbols for abstract concepts such as love, hate, go, and so on.

The Sumerian script dominated all writing forms for at least four thousand years until the Greek script became preeminent.

From the very beginning, the settlement of the Sumerian delta possessed metal working facilities (they were particularly good at copper working) and wheeled vehicles, a development which must have given them a short-lived but significant advantage over their neighbors at the time.

To the southeast of Sumer lay the Saudi Arabian Peninsula—the original heartland of the Semitic-speaking peoples. The original whites were soon surrounded by Semitic tribes, and within a few hundred years Semitic immigrants began to take up residence in the region, both as peaceful immigrants and as raiders.

The First Semitic Invasion—the Akkads

The first large-scale Semitic invasion took place in 2335 BC, when the white Sumerians were overrun by the Akkadian people. The Semitic Akkad occupation of Sumer led to the establishment of a new kingdom, known as "The Kingdom of Sumer and Akkad." It was shortly after the Akkadian invasion that the first Jews were recorded as entering Sumeria in large numbers.

After a few generations, the Semitic tribes started intermarrying with the original white tribes, and although this process was not absolute, the distinctions between the two groups became blurred. This mixing of the races in the region led to an increasingly hybrid population—a trend which continues to this day.

Art forms left by the early Babylonians revealed their racial makeup as primarily a Mediterranean people. With the passage of time, a distinct Semitic influence became apparent.

The Mediterranean origin of these early people has been confirmed by the British anthropologists Dudley Buxton and Talbot Rice, who examined skulls excavated at the Sumerian palace at Kish in Mesopotamia.

Similar skulls were found by the French anthropologist H.V. Vallois at Sialk, halfway between Tehran and Isfahan, northeast of Kish, and in the Indus River Valley by R.B.S. Sewell and B.S. Guha of the Zoological Survey of India. All the remains were positively identified as belonging to the white Mediterranean subrace.[2]

Civilization of Sumer Peaks—After First Indo-European Gutian Invasion

The kingdom of Sumer and Akkad then fell before the first, and by all accounts, ferocious, Indo-European invasion—that of the Celts. Known as Gutians in the Middle East, they invaded the kingdom of Sumer and Akkad around the year 2200 BC.

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[2] *Race,* Baker, J. R., Oxford University Press, 1974, p. 511.

ZIGGURATS AT UR, 2100 BC

Despite having no natural stone resources, the Sumerians created huge monuments of clay brick which still stand. This is the main step ziggurat at Ur, built circa 2100 BC, shortly after the first major Indo-European invasion. The temple building was created in the shape of a step pyramid.

The Gutians sacked and destroyed the mixed Semitic/Mediterranean Sumer and Akkadian civilization and established their own rule and civilization in the region. Soon they had provinces extending to the Mediterranean Sea.

It was after the Gutian invasion that Sumerian civilization reached some of its greatest heights. These included:

- The very first written law code in the world, which still exists and dates from 2095 BC;
- The construction of the great Sumerian pyramids, called ziggurats (the most famous of which is the ziggurat at the Sumerian city of Ur, built in 2100 BC), which served as temples and community centers, many of which are still standing today; and
- A complex system of canals, weirs, and water routes by which the agricultural settlements alongside the rivers were kept irrigated.

After a few generations, the Gutians became submerged into the wider population of Sumer, whose great cities and wealth had acted as a magnet for all the surrounding Semitic tribes.

Increasing numbers of Semitic traders, laborers, and slaves were drawn to Sumer, creating over time a mixture of Old European, Semitic, and Indo-European peoples. This is reflected in their art forms and in the wide range of racial features on display in that region to this day.

Second Indo-European Invasion—the Amorites

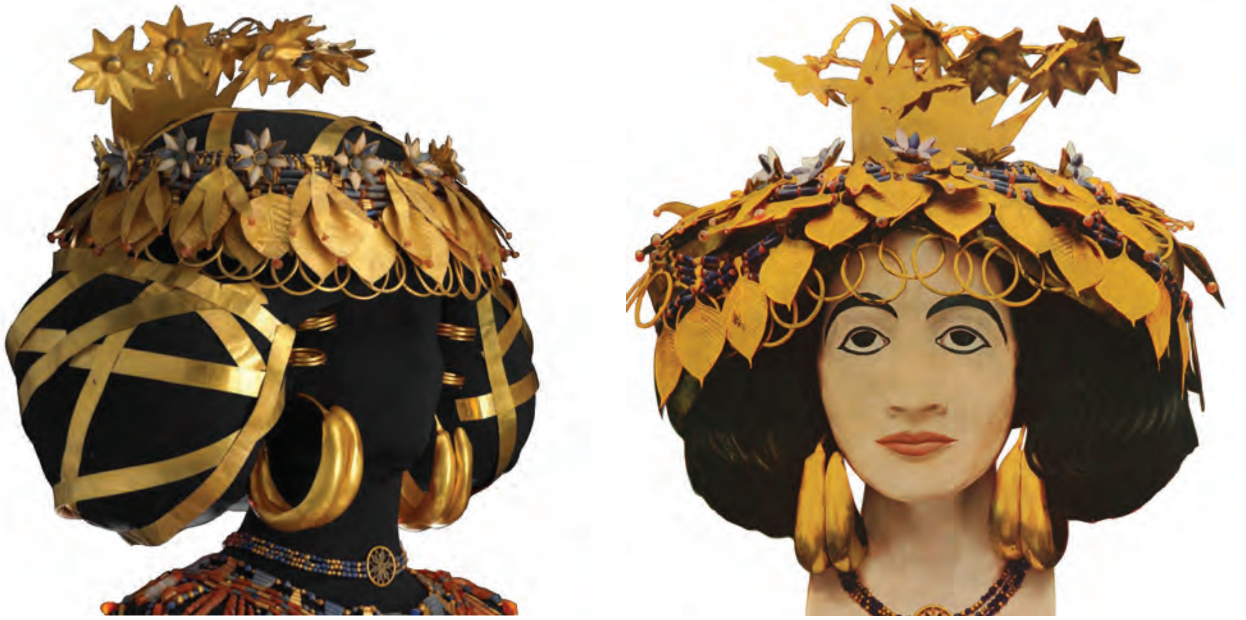
The region was invaded once again by another Indo-European group, the Amorites, around the year 2000 BC. The Amorites had originally entered the Middle East from the Balkans and had occupied Palestine, mixing with a certain number of the Jewish tribes they subjugated there.

It is a matter of conjecture as to exactly how much Semitic (therefore darker) physical characteristics they had by the year 2000 BC. Very likely, it was not much, as the Egyptians still described them as fair-haired and blue-eyed some seven hundred years after they had invaded Sumeria.

WORLD'S OLDEST LYRE, 2700 BC

The world's oldest lyres—similar to a harp but mounted on a box—were found in the Royal Tombs at the Sumerian city of Ur, dating to 2700 BC. Above left, one of the lyres, and alongside, a detail from the Standard of Ur, another artifact recovered at the same site, depicting a lyre in use. (British Museum, London, UK).

SUMERIAN HEADDRESS, UR 2500 BC



The ornate headdress and jewelry of the Sumerian queen Shub-ab, circa 2500 BC. (University of Pennsylvania Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology, Philadelphia, USA). Alongside: The headdress as drawn on a model by an artist shortly after its discovery at the ancient city of Ur in Mesopotamia. ("Ur Excavations," Volume II, The Royal Cemetery, *C. L. Woolley, Publications of the Joint Expedition of the British Museum and of the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania to Mesopotamia, 1934).*

Advanced Sumerian Culture

Sumerian religion had four creating deities: An, god of heaven; Ki, goddess of earth; Enlil, god of air; and Enki, god of water.

There were three sky deities: Nanna, god of the moon; Utu, god of the sun; and Inanna, the queen of heaven. Inanna was also the goddess of love, procreation, and war.

The Sumerians had a reasonably advanced mathematical system with tables for multiplication, division, and even square and cube roots. They also possessed knowledge of geometry.

The most famous surviving piece of literature from this period is the *Epic of Gilgamesh*, a fictional story of an old king of the city-state of Erech who sets off in search of immortality.

It also includes a chapter dealing with a flood of the earth and is clearly the origin of the Christian and Jewish Old Testament story of Noah and the flood.

Babylon and Hammurabi

The chaos caused by the Amorite invasion lasted until 1763 BC when a strong and capable king arose and united the inhabitants once again. At this time the city of Babylon was built, and the region became known as Babylonia.

Hammurabi was the first famous king of Babylon who managed to end the chaos and unite all the tribes into a nation. He is probably most remembered for his *Code of Law*, dating from 1750 BC, which is widely, but incorrectly, held to be the first written legal code in the world (it was the second, the first being the code drawn up by the earlier Indo-European Sumerians).

Hammurabi's *Code of Law* was engraved in stone and set up in the great cities of the region, and to this day the code is regarded as the father of all legal codes of the world. An original copy of one of his codes is on display in the Louvre Museum in Paris, France.

While some of the laws seem harsh to the modern mind (death for being unable to repay a debt, for example), the wording of the prologue to the *Code of Law* provides a fascinating glimpse into the conflict between the Semitic and Indo-European populations in the region. In the prologue, Hammurabi announces that he has come to "rule the black-haired people." He is also referred to as "the white king" and the "White Potent," apparently in reference to his coloring. The original introduction to the Hammurabi Code states the following:

"Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared God, to bring about the rule of righteousness in the land, to destroy the wicked and the evil-doers; so that the strong should not harm the weak; so that I should rule over the black-headed people like Shamash, and enlighten the land, to further the well-being of mankind . . . Hammurabi, the prince, called of Bel am I, making riches and increase . . . who enriched Ur . . . the white king . . . the mighty, who again laid the foundations of Sippara . . . the lord who granted new life to Uruk, who brought plenteous water to its inhabitants . . . the White, Potent, who penetrated the secret cave of the bandits."[3]

The 282 laws cover offenses against other people and property; and disputes concerning land, trade, fees, professional services, and family. Some of the punishments would be considered harsh by modern standards, but on the whole, the laws present a picture of a well-ordered society that lived by recognized standards and offered protection to all its citizens.

Although the *Code of Law* drew a distinct line between Hammurabi himself and the "black-headed" peoples, it also showed that by this time large numbers of the population had become distinctly Semitic.

Nonetheless, building upon the technological and cultural precedents set by the Sumerians, the Babylonians maintained the complex systems of canals, dikes, weirs, and reservoirs constructed by the original white inhabitants.

Third Indo-European Invasion—Kassites

Babylon was then invaded by a new wave of Indo-Europeans. Called the Kassites and Hittites, the newcomers had conquered most of the region by 1595 BC. Under Kassite rule, which lasted another 450 years, Babylonia once again became a power of considerable importance. The Kassites were the first people to use the chariot as a weapon of war, a skill later taken on by nearly every other nation in the Middle East and Europe.

HAMMURABI'S CODE OF LAW 1750 BC

The Stela of Hammurabi's Code of Law, 1750 BC. The code has been preserved intact on this stela, now in the Louvre Museum in Paris. At the top of the stela is a picture of King Hammurabi before Shamash, the Indo-European sun god, who was also the god of justice. The introduction to the code is directly below the pictures, in which Hammurabi asserts that he has come to rule over the "black-headed people."

Invasions of the "Sea Peoples"

To add to all this confusion, beginning about 1300 BC, most of the Middle East was shaken by a new wave of invaders who became known as the "Sea Peoples." There is no firm indication of where the "Sea Peoples" came from, but their marauding activities certainly seem to be a precursor to later Viking tactics. The main references to these people come from Egyptian inscriptions which reveal only that they arrived in warships and seemed to be nearly invincible.

The Egyptians also described the Sea Peoples as fair skinned and fair haired, another indication that they were of some Indo-European origin. By the year 1100 BC, these invasions had come to an end, leaving only the enigmatic references to their activities behind.

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[3] Translated by L. W. King, *Encyclopedia Britannica,* 11th Edition, 1910.

GEOMETRY AND MATHEMATICS, 2000 BC

A cuneiform tablet, dating from circa 2000 BC, displays the mathematical theory of right-angled triangles, similar to the more famous—but much later—Greek Euclidean laws of geometry. As the Sumerians miscegenated themselves out of existence, much of this knowledge was lost. Only a few portions of this culture were kept by the Arabs and later presented as "their" culture. This tablet was found at the Mesopotamian city of Shaduppumm. (Iraq Museum, Baghdad, Iraq).

JEWISH KING PAYS HOMAGE TO ASSYRIAN KING

An engraving from the Black Obelisk of Shalmaneser III from Nimrud (circa 827 BC) palace at Ashurbanipal at Nineveh, Assyria, at the height of the Assyrian Empire. The Jewish king, Jehu (kneeling), pays homage to the Assyrian ruler. (British Museum, London, UK).

IDRIMI, MITANNI KING, 1475 BC

A statue of Idrimi, the first king of the Mitanni, an Indo-European kingdom in northwestern Mesopotamia, established in 1475 BC. That kingdom was invaded in 1275 BC by a rival Indo-European tribe, the Kassites. (British Museum, London, UK).

Semitic Population Increases

All during this time, the entire Middle East had seen the number of Semites steadily increase. This growing preponderance was propelled even further by a renewed Semitic invasion which started in the ninth century when the Chaldeans managed to occupy the region.

Although Semitic himself, the Chaldean king, Nebuchadnezzar (who became king in 604 BC), achieved fame for carrying off several thousand Jews into captivity in Babylon. The Chaldeans in turn were attacked by the originally Indo-European Assyrians in the north, and the city of Babylon was eventually sacked by the Assyrians around the year 700 BC.

The Hittite Empire Emerges

An Indo-European tribe called the Hittites—once thought only to have existed in the Christian Bible—were the next to establish an empire in the region today known as central Turkey around the year 2000 BC.

In 1700 BC, Hittite armies began pushing south once again, conquering Syria and the Tigris and Euphrates River Valley. This in turn led to the destruction of the Babylonian empire by 1600 BC. Continued expansion eventually saw

HITTITE SOLDIERS CIRCA 1350 BC

Hittite spear-men, in plumed helmets and carrying shields, are part of an impressive frieze in the palace at the Hittite city of Carchemish, dating from circa 1350 BC. (Anatolian Civilizations Museum, Ankara, Turkey).

the Hittite Empire cover an area of land which stretched from the Black Sea to Syria.

The Hittites are credited with being the first people to work iron in the region and are famous for borrowing much of their legal system from the law codes they found when they conquered the Babylonians. They also were responsible for the spread of Mesopotamian culture around Asia Minor (Turkey) and even to the early Greeks.

The Hittite conquest of Syria—then an Egyptian colony—provoked a war with that mighty nation.

The Egyptian pharaoh, Ramesses II, attacked the armies of the Hittite King Ḫattušili III from bases in Palestine in 1269 BC, but Ḫattušili defeated Ramses, and a peace treaty followed, in terms of which the Hittites kept possession of Syria. That treaty, still in existence today, is the world's oldest surviving international pact.

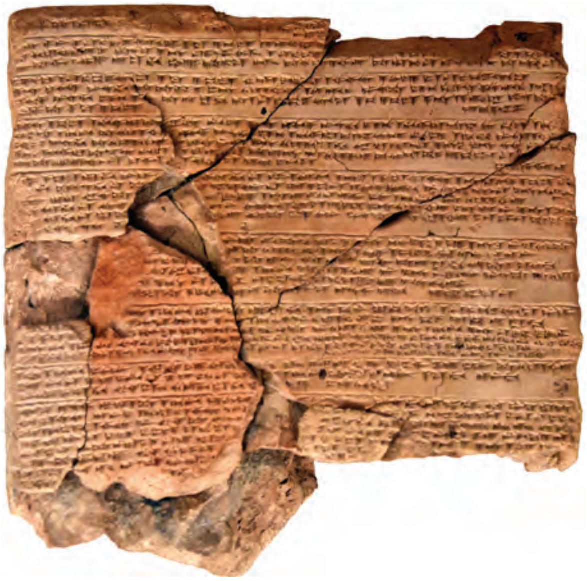
The treaty proclaimed that both sides would forever remain at peace and bound their immediate descendants to the peace accord. Further clauses allowed for the repatriation of criminals or wanted people, and vowed military help to one another:

"And if another enemy come [against] the land of Hatti [Hittites]... the great king of Egypt shall send his troops and his chariots and shall slay his enemy and he shall restore confidence to the land of Hatti."

HITTITE CONFLICT WITH SEMITES CIRCA 1350 BC

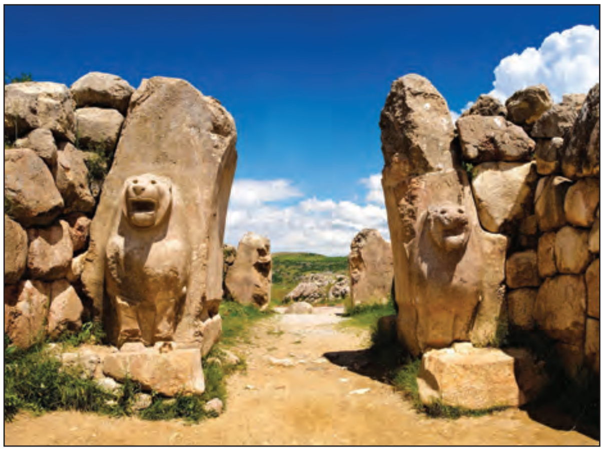
A Hittite chariot rides over a conquered Semite. In common with all Indo-Europeans, the Hittites brought the horse with them into the Middle East. The racial conflict which followed the Indo-European invasion of the region is accurately captured in this detail from the frieze at the great city of Carchemish. (Anatolian Civilizations Museum, Ankara, Turkey).

THE EGYPTIAN - HITTITE PEACE TREATY



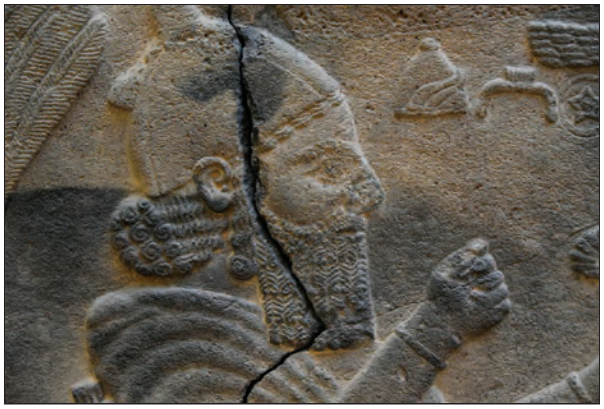
The Hittite—Egyptian peace treaty (circa 1250 BC) is the earliest known surviving peace treaty. Copies were made in Hittite and Egyptian hieroglyphics, and copies of both have survived. The originals were carved into silver tablets and given to each side, as revealed in the text of the treaty. This is an original Hittite version. (Neues Museum, Berlin, Germany).

LION GATE: ENTRANCE TO HITTITE CAPITAL



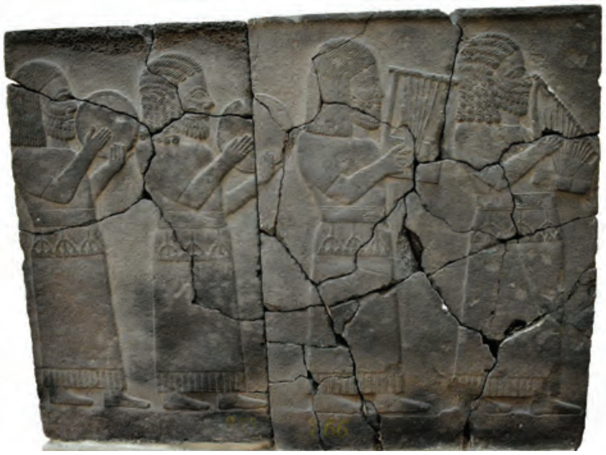
The Hittite capital city of Hattusa (located in present-day central Turkey) was a heavily fortified center. Above, the Lion Gate was one of the main entrances to Hattusa. One of the lion heads has been restored; the other is in original condition. The oldest parts of the city date from around 2000 BC. Below: A modern reconstruction of parts of the city wall of Hattusa.

LATE HITTITE ERA KING BARREKUB



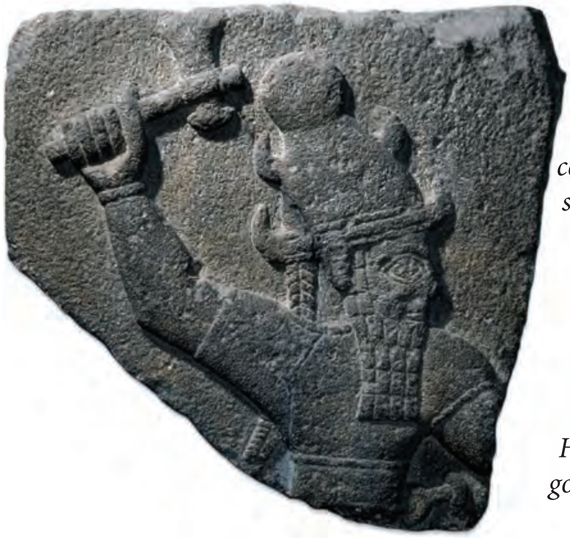
A fine portrayal of the Hittite King Barrekub. Detail of a basalt stele from Sam'al dating from the Late Hittite period, 8th century BC. (Ancient Orient Museum, Istanbul).

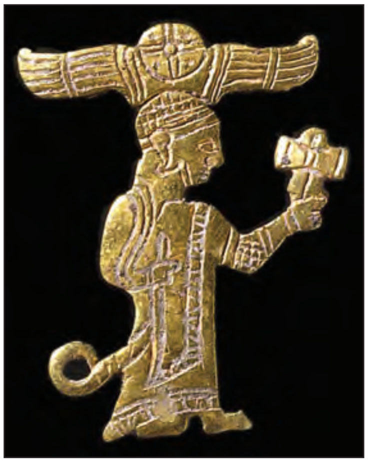
HITTITE MUSICIANS



A Hittite basalt wall relief depicts four musicians. Late Hittite period, 8th century, from the city of Sam'al, today known as Sinjerli in Turkey. (Ancient Orient Museum, Istanbul, Turkey).

HITTITE STORM GOD: SIMILAR TO NORSE THOR





Left: A basalt relief showing the Hittite storm-god, 10th century BC, from Carchemish, south-east Anatolia (present-day Turkey). The similarity to the Norse god Thor—the Hittite God even holds a hammer—is clear. (British Museum, London, UK). Right: Another image of the Hittite storm god, this time in gold. (Ancient Orient Museum, Istanbul).

PERSIANS SHOWN AS NORDIC TYPES 310 BC

Above left: The famous Alexander Sarcophagus, circa 310 BC, is of value because it shows details of Persian soldiers dating from the time of Alexander the Great. They are in color and many Persian warriors are depicted as having light eyes and hair with fair or red mustaches. (Istanbul Archaeology Museum, Istanbul, Turkey). Above right: A restored copy of one of the panels on the Alexander Sarcophagus, following a color scheme based on traces of original paint still existing on the piece. The panel shows Alexander's forces in battle with Persians.

By 1500 BC, the Hittites had, like many of the Indo-European tribes (and also the Semites), started to mingle with the other peoples in the region, eventually producing the population of today in the Middle East, an indefinable mix of white, Semite, black, and even Mongoloid strains.

So weakened, the Hittite empire came to an end, being overrun by new waves of Indo-European invaders, the Assyrians, from the north. With the collapse of the Hittite Empire in 1200 BC, no one power was strong enough to dominate the Middle East, and a number of independent states flourished for about five hundred years.

Indo-European Philistines Become Enemies of the Jews in Palestine

One of the Indo-European invasions which contributed to the fall of the Hittites was led by a tribe known as the Philistines. This tribe conquered large parts of the Middle East, including today's Palestine (from which the name of that country originates) and eventually Babylon as well. The Philistines established what was by all accounts a harsh rule over the Semites, which led to the subjugated Jewish tribes developing a fanatical hatred for them.

This dislike of Philistines was repeated in the Bible, which in turn was absorbed into European culture. In this way, the insult of calling someone a "Philistine" became part of everyday English language.

Phoenicians—Foremost Traders of Their Time

A number of other smaller white cultures sprang up in this region, each of them contributing in their own way to the advancement of civilization. Among them were the Phoenicians, who through trade established themselves as a powerful nation in the Mediterranean. Their home base was in present-day Lebanon, an area which they had occupied by the time of the year 2700 BC.

Although originally a Mediterranean people, there is evidence to suggest that during their long stay in Lebanon and Palestine, the Phoenicians absorbed a fair amount of Semitic blood, being ruled by the Hebrews for a significant period of time. However, the Phoenicians were also ruled by the Egyptians and Hittites in turn, and by this time exhibited physical characteristics which represented a mix of Nordic, Mediterranean, and Semitic peoples.[4]

The Phoenicians are credited with the creation of the modern alphabet, although this is an exaggeration. The Phoenicians took the semi-alphabet script developed by the Egyptians, adopted it, and used it as a means for their trade. This

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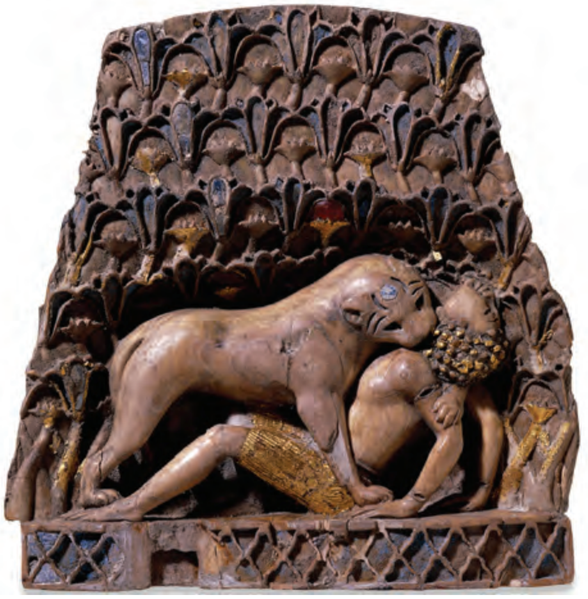
[4] DNA testing of remains found in ancient Phoenician cemeteries in southern Spain revealed that the European mtDNA Haplogroups U and H were dominant in that population in 500 BC. ("Ancient DNA of Phoenician remains indicates discontinuity in the settlement history of Ibiza," Zalloua, P., et al., *Scientific Reports,* volume 8, 2018, Article number: 17567).

NUBIAN SLAVE ATTACKED BY LION



A panel recovered from the Assyrian capital city of Nimrud, dating from the reign of King Ashurnasirpal II (883–859 BC). The carving shows an African being attacked by a lioness. The existence of this artifact indicates that the Assyrians used African slaves, and this slave trade could possibly be part of the reason for occasional Negro racial characteristics which can be seen in the Middle East in the present day. (British Museum, London, UK).

basic alphabet was picked up by later Greeks and developed into Greek script. From this Greek script, the modern alphabet was developed over a much longer period of time. At best then, the Phoenicians can claim to having been one link in the process of developing the modern alphabet.

The Phoenicians became famous as traders, establishing settlements all over the Mediterranean basin, including the Italian peninsula and Spain.

In 800 BC, the Phoenicians founded the city of Carthage in present-day Tunis, just opposite the bottom of the Italian peninsula. Carthage came to be populated by a large number of different peoples, but retained its essentially Mediterranean/Nordic mix right until the time of its wars with Rome.

The most famous Carthaginian military leader, Hannibal, who was the scourge of Rome for many years, was a very clear Nordic subracial type, who came from a noble family in Carthage. Although Carthage was eventually destroyed by the Romans, it lasted longer than the Phoenician cities in Lebanon, which were razed in 750 BC by new Indo-European led invaders, the Assyrians.

Persia—Original Indo-European Civilization

The leaders of Persia called themselves Aryans. Darius the Great, King of Persia (521–486 BC), in an inscription in Naqsh-e-Rostam proclaims: “I am Darius, the Great King... A Persian, son of a Persian, an Aryan, having Aryan lineage...”[5]

The Iranian plateau was settled about 1500 BC by Indo-European tribes, the most important of which were the Medes, who occupied the northwestern portion, and the Persians. The Persians were dominated by the Medes until the accession to the throne by the Persian, Cyrus the Great, in 550 BC. He overthrew the Median rulers, conquered two neighboring kingdoms (including Babylonia in 539 BC), and established the Persian Empire as the preeminent power of the Middle East.

Cyrus tried to be a benevolent ruler. In Sumeria he allowed the dominant religion of the time to approve his assumption of the Babylonian kingship, while in Jerusalem he launched the rebuilding of the Jewish temple. The result of his endeavors was an empire of diverse peoples which ultimately led to Persia’s undoing.

Persian Empire Expands, Defeated by the Greeks

Cyrus’s son, Cambyses II, extended the Persian realm even further by conquering the (by then thoroughly mixed race) Egyptians in 525 BC. Darius I, who ascended the throne in 521 BC, pushed the Persian borders as far eastward as the Indus River, had a canal constructed from the Nile to the Red Sea, and reorganized the entire empire, earning the title Darius the Great.

From 499 to 493 BC Darius the Great engaged in crushing a revolt of the Ionian Greeks living under Persian rule in Asia, and then launched a punitive campaign against the Greeks for supporting the rebels. His forces were disastrously defeated by the Greeks at the historic Battle of

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[5] Inscription of Darius the Great at Naqsh-e- Rostam, a site near Persepolis, in Fars Province, Iran.

Marathon in 490 BC. His successor, Xerxes I, also tried to defeat the Greeks, but was in turn defeated in the great sea engagement, the Battle of Salamis, in 480 BC, and in two successive land battles the following year.

The forays of the Persian king Xerxes I were the last notable attempt at expansion of the Persian Empire. By this time, the Aryan tribes had absorbed Semitic and Asiatic immigrants and had started to unravel as a homogeneous nation.

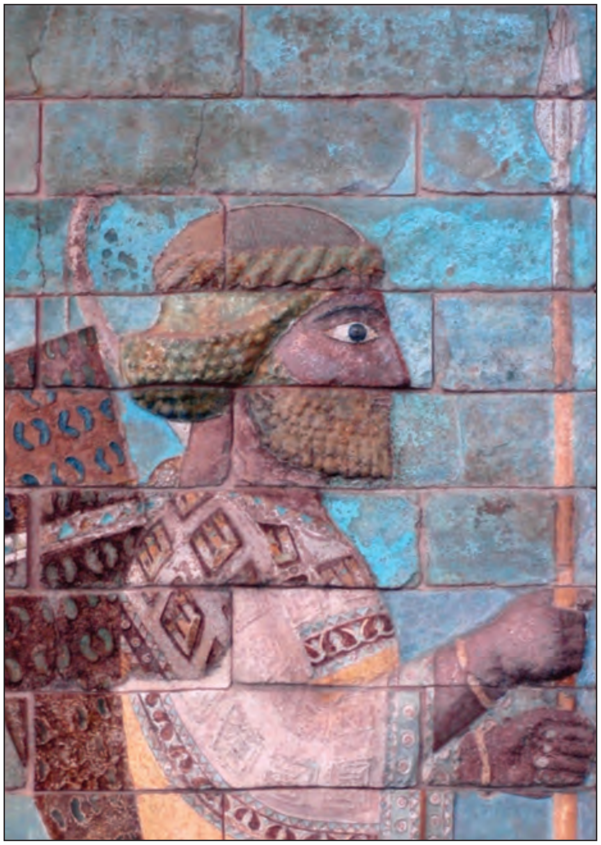
Indian Depictions of Persians as Nordics and Mixed-Racial Types

In 370 BC, the Greek writer Xenophon praised what he called "tall beautiful Persian women"[6] and around 200 BC or slightly later, Persian envoys to India were depicted in paintings in the Ajanta caves in India as light skinned, blue-eyed and blond, or dark-skinned, blue-eyed, and with fair beards.

The variance in phenotype as portrayed in the Ajanta paintings is tangible evidence the Indo-European Persians had started mixing with the darker natives of the Middle East.

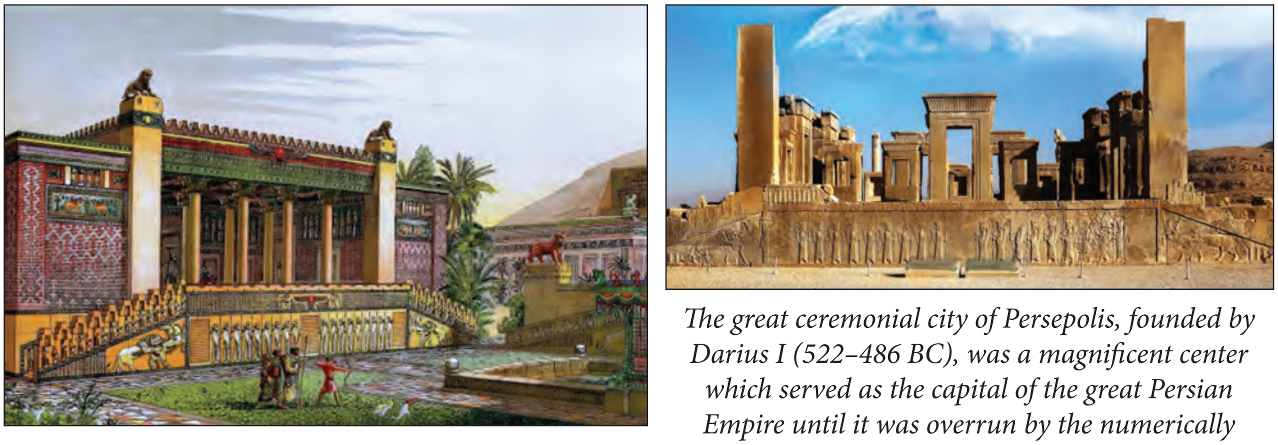
By the fourth century, this process had spread so dramatically that only a very few of the ruling class could still claim pure Indo-European ancestry. Finally, the already largely mixed-race

BLUE-EYED ARCHER OF DARIUS



An archer of the Persian army of Darius is portrayed on enameled tiles found in the remains of the great city of Susa. The soldier is depicted with blue eyes. (Louvre Museum, Paris, France).

THE GREAT PALACE AT PERSEPOLIS, PERSIA CIRCA 500 BC



*The great ceremonial city of Persepolis, founded by Darius I (522–486 BC), was a magnificent center which served as the capital of the great Persian Empire until it was overrun by the numerically superior mixed races of the Middle East. Located in what is today southern Iran, the earliest remains have been dated to around 515 BC. Above left: A reconstruction of what the great hall looked like in its glory. (*History of Art in Persia*, Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez, 1892). A double staircase, decorated with reliefs, led to the magnificent audience hall where the Persian emperors received their guests. The site was chosen by Cyrus the Great, and the building work completed by Darius I. Today it is a ruin; the original Persians are gone. Above right: The ruins of the city as they can be seen today.*

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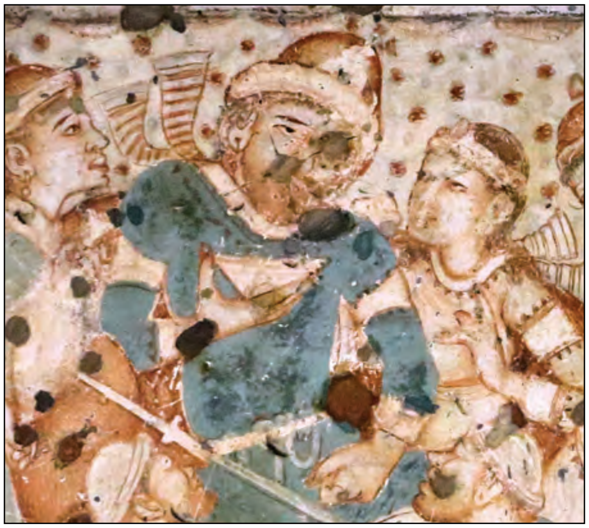
[6] *Anabasis*, Xenophon, Book III, Chapter II.

PERSIANS VISITORS IN INDIA: AJANTA CAVES



The Buddhist Ajanta Caves in north-central India date from around 200 BC or slightly earlier, and depict a large variety of scenes, including foreign dignitaries—identified as Persians—visiting local Indian kings. Above, one of the foreign dignitary paintings, depicting the light coloring of the Persian ambassador.

Persians were overrun by the new white force in the region: the Indo-European Macedonians under Alexander the Great in a series of battles between 334 and 331 BC.

The Persians became known for the efficient administration of their huge empire, but are probably best remembered for their religion called Zoroastrianism.

Founded by the prophet Zarathustra, the basic concept of a battle between good and evil supernatural powers was later used by the early Christians and worked into the biblical New Testament (the concepts of heaven and hell are not mentioned at all in the Christian Old Testament).

Assyrian Empire—World's First Postal System

The next large empire in the Middle East was established by the originally Indo-European Assyrians (the word Assyrian is also a corruption of the word "Aryan") who, from their base in present-day Syria, captured Babylon in 910 BC.

In 722 BC, the Assyrians captured Palestine, and by 671 BC their empire extended as far as the Nile Delta. The Assyrians, like the Hittites, had mastered the art of iron-working and iron weapons (a skill which had come down from the north and had spread with the Indo-European invasions). As such they had a massive advantage over their opponents.

The Assyrian king of this time, Ashurbanipul, was a cultured man and reputedly had a library of some twenty-two thousand clay tablets at the capital city of Khorsabad.

The Assyrian empire was the first to build a network of national roads and a postal service. They also had the first coherent administrative system which served as a role model for many later civilizations.

By the middle of the seventh century BC, the Assyrian empire was on the decline, weakened by a steady dissolution of their original racial homogeneity through increasing mixing with the ever-growing number of Semites in the region. Eventually, a combination of neighboring Indo-European tribes (Persians, Medes, and Scythians) overthrew the Assyrians, and in 612 BC the capital, Nineveh, was destroyed.

The downfall of the Assyrians left four small powers in the Middle East. These were the Medes, the Persians, the Lydians, and the Chaldeans. All but the last of these were still majority white in racial makeup, although large—and soon to be overwhelming—numbers of Semites, and even some Mongoloid strains, had been integrated into their societies.

The Medes and Scythians

The people known as the Medes had already established an informal empire just to the east of the Assyrians, south of the Caspian Sea, in present-day Iran.

The Medes were also noteworthy for their help in the destruction of the Assyrian Empire and were in turn overrun by their former colony, Persia, in 550 BC. Like so many Indo-European cultures of the region at that time, they not only had to contend with the local mixed white and Semitic population, who continually agitated against them, but also with other Indo-European invaders who continually penetrated the region from the north.

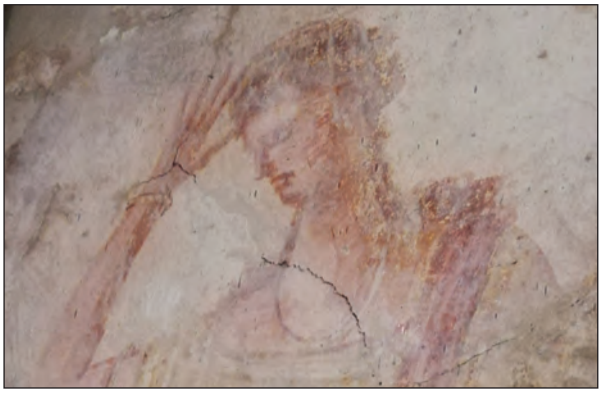
The most noted of these new invaders were the Scythians, who were the first to use mounted cavalry in battle. The Scythians overran what is today Palestine in the seventh century BC, and some of their fair-haired and light-eyed descendants can still be seen among the Druses of Lebanon.

Whites Submerged Circa 250 BC

The fall of the Persian Empire marked the end of the great majority white civilizations in the Middle East. By this time, all of the settlements had lost whatever racial homogeneity they once had, and were to larger or smaller degrees societies comprised of a plethora of mixed races.

This mixing produced the wide and varied physiognomy visible to this day in the region—a mix of Semitic and original white stock. Nonetheless, to this day there remain significant Indo-European "genetic throwbacks" among the Persians, today called the Iranians. European features are also not uncommon among present-day Indians, Afghanis, Iraqis, Syrians, Lebanese, Turks, and Palestinians, all evidence of the original Indo-Europeans in the region.

BLOND WOMAN IN SIDON, LEBANON 400 BC

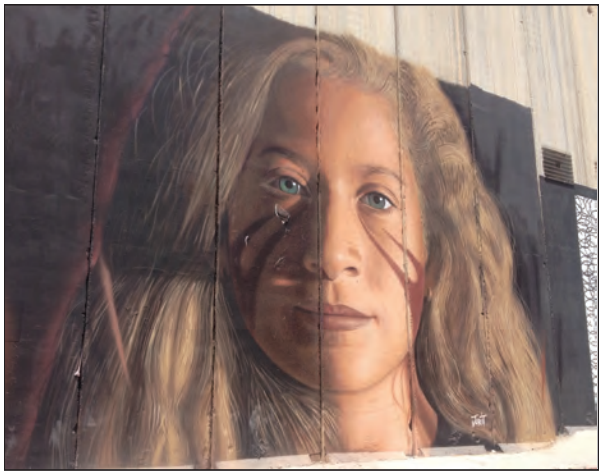


A fresco from Sidon (Sayda in Lebanon), dating from the Early Hellenistic period, circa 400 BC, depicting a blond-haired resident. (Istanbul Archaeological Museum, Istanbul).

BLUE EYED SYRIAN PRESIDENT, 2022

Bashar Hafez al-Assad, (born 1965) became the President of Syria in 2000. He was notable for his blue eyes and European features. The al-Assad family is from Qardaha in north-west Syria. Similar features can be found all over the Middle East.

BLUE-EYE BLOND PALESTINIAN ACTIVIST, 2017



Ahed Tamimi (born 2001) is a well-known Palestinian activist from the village of Nabi Salih in the occupied West Bank. She is best known for her dramatic confrontations with Israeli soldiers, which are often filmed and have become viral. Tamimi (above) being arrested by Israeli security forces in 2017, and right, a mural of her face painted on the wall Israel built on Palestinian territory, in the West Bank. Tamimi's features have not gone unnoticed by her enemies, with a leading Zionist writer, Ben-Dror Yemini, writing in 2017 that "Tamimi's success in the Western public opinion stems from the fact that she doesn't look like a typical Muslim or Palestinian woman; she generates sympathy because she looks like the daughter of the white family next door." ("The blue-eyed poster girl of Palestinian propaganda," Y-Net News, *12.27.17).*

Chapter 10: Nordic-Led Desert Empire—Ancient Egypt

The towering magnificence of Ancient Egypt—with its monuments that are acknowledged as wonders to the present-day—and its total collapse, have remained an endless source of debate through the millennia, and more specifically, has raised the question: what race were the ancient Egyptians?

Previously, the answers to this question were drawn from the physical evidence of the appearance of a large number of well-preserved mummies, and artistic evidence left by the ancient Egyptians themselves.

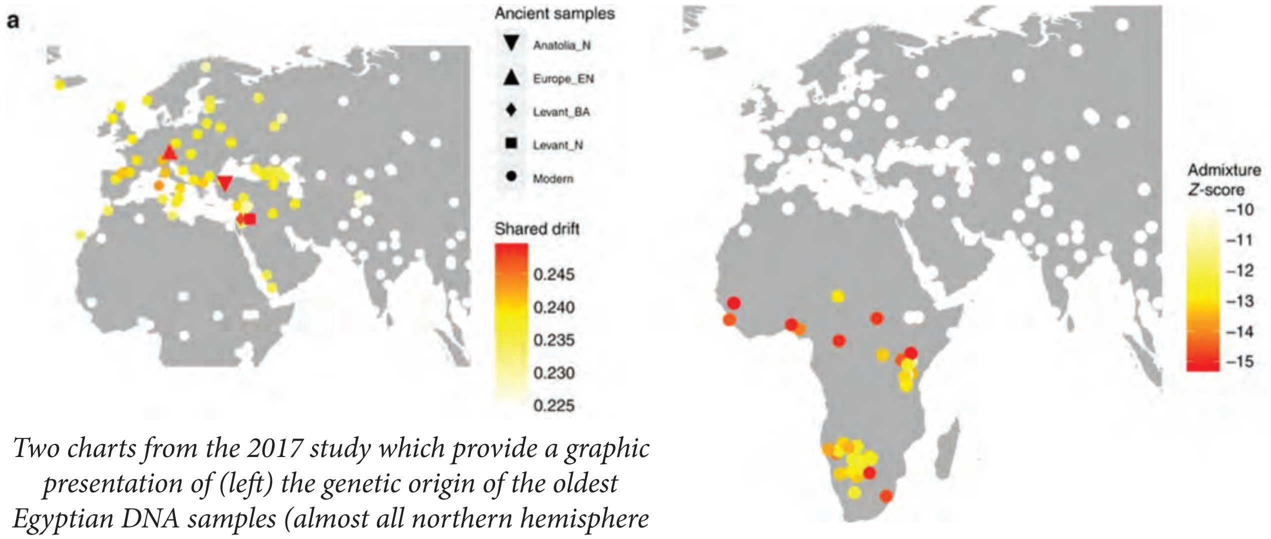
That evidence, by itself (reviewed later in this chapter) conclusively showed that Ancient Egypt was originally created by white people, led by a Nordic elite, and slowly miscegenated—racially mixed—themselves out of existence into the present-day population of Egypt.

This conclusion, although completely supported by the physical evidence—as the reader will see—remained the subject of much denial from those with vested interests such as Afrocentrists. However, with the emergence of the science of genetics, and the ability to analyze DNA from ancient tissue, this debate has now been finally settled.

DNA Evidence Demonstrates White Origin of Ancient Egypt

In 2017,[1] a team of scientists from the University of Tuebingen and the Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History in Jena, Germany, conducted a comprehensive study of ancient Egyptian DNA taken from an archaeological site

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN DNA REVEALS EUROPEAN ORIGIN, AND LATER MIXING WITH AFRICAN ELEMENTS



Two charts from the 2017 study which provide a graphic presentation of (left) the genetic origin of the oldest Egyptian DNA samples (almost all northern hemisphere and European) and (right) the genetic origin of later Egyptian DNA sample admixture (all sub-Saharan African). This chart shows exactly how the genetic composition of the Egyptian population changed over time, from one dominated by European racial types to that of a mixed racial type—which can be seen in the present-day Egyptian population. (Source: "Figure 5: Shared drift and mixture analysis of three ancient Egyptians with other modern and ancient populations," from "Ancient Egyptian mummy genomes suggest an increase of Sub-Saharan African ancestry in post-Roman periods," Schuenemann V. J. et al., Nature Communications, *2017, volume 8, Article number: 15694.)*

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[1] "Ancient Egyptian mummy genomes suggest an increase of Sub-Saharan African ancestry in post-Roman periods," Schuenemann V. J. et al., *Nature Communications,* 2017, volume 8, Article number: 15694.

on the River Nile, Abusir el-Meleq, which was inhabited from 3250 BC to 700 AD. This meant that their DNA samples covered almost the entire period of “ancient Egyptian” history, and was able to provide a window into the genetic differentiation and population continuity, over a 1,300-year timespan. After sampling and analyzing DNA from 151 mummified individuals, the scientists concluded that “ancient Egyptians are most closely related to Neolithic and Bronze Age samples in the Levant, as well as to Neolithic Anatolian and European populations,” and that “the ancient Egyptians are more closely related to all modern and ancient European populations than we tested, likely due to the additional African component in the modern [Egyptian] population.”[2]

The scientists found that the ancient Egyptian DNA was European—and that similar DNA is found in modern day western and northern European populations. As they analyzed DNA from mummies dating from later time periods in Egyptian history, they found increasingly large elements of African DNA.

This means that as time progressed, Egyptian society was gradually overrun by African and other nonwhite elements, until finally the white element was totally submerged.

Skeletal Evidence Confirms Racial History of Ancient Egypt

The course of racial developments in Egyptian history has been backed up by anthropological research. The British anthropologist G.M. Morant, produced a comprehensive study of Egyptian skulls from commoner and royal graves from all parts of the Egyptian lands and times.[3]

His conclusions were that the majority of the population of Lower Egypt—that is in the northern part of the country—were members of the Mediterranean white subrace. In the south (or Upper Egypt), this population pattern was repeated but this time showed a certain percentage of black admixture (reflecting the proximity of the Nubian settlement).

Significantly, Morant found that with the passage of time, the differentiation in skull types between Upper and Lower Egypt became less and less distinct, until ultimately, they became indistinguishable—the surest sign of the absorption of the white subrace into the growing nonwhite mass.

FINELY CARVED KNIFE
3300 BC

BLUE-EYED STATUE, 3600 BC

Left: The Gebel el-Arak Knife, an ivory and flint knife dating from the Naqada II period of Egyptian prehistory (3500—3200 BC).
Right: A bone figure of a woman with blue eyes, made from inset lapis lazuli, from Upper Egypt, Early Predynastic period, Naqada I, 4000–3600 B.C. The ancient Egyptians often used lapis lazuli to illustrate eye color in their artworks.

Nubian and Semitic Populations: Slaves, Soldiers, and Invaders

To the south of Egypt lay the land of Kush, or Nubia. Today known as the Sudan, it is from this region that the African, or black, sub-Saharan element in Egyptian society was to originate.

Black slaves were a common feature of Egyptian society from almost the very beginning, and many were also used as mercenaries in Egyptian military forces. In addition, Egypt was bordered to the east by the Saudi Arabian Peninsula, which served as

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[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Race,* Baker, J. R., Oxford University Press, 1974, page 519.

GEBELEIN MAN–RED-HAIRED EGYPTIAN CIRCA 3300 BC

One of the oldest mummies from Egypt is "Gebelein Man," a naturally preserved burial site on the Nile River deep in southern Egypt, dating from c. 3300 BC. Buried in a sand grave, the natural dryness of the surroundings kept the body preserved. His red hair has been well preserved, and he was known as "Ginger" until the era of political correctness. Alongside: A close-up of Gebelein Man's head. (British Museum, London).

FIRST EGYPTIAN KING STRIKES DOWN HIS SEMITIC ENEMY, 3000 BC

The "Palette of Narmer" c. 3000 BC, showing the first king Menes, striking at the head of a Semitic enemy with a club.

the original heartland of the Semitic peoples. Slaves from these regions were used in Egypt as well, although they were less common. Ultimately the Semitic and African elements were to overrun Egyptian society and create a mixed-race population which can still be seen in that country.

The long period of Egyptian history (over 2000 years) is divided into ten specific eras, each with its own characteristics and racial developments.

Era 1: Pre-Dynastic Period, 6000–3150 BC

The earliest settlements in Egypt were during the Neolithic era, around 6000 BC. This period is marked by the appearance of distinct cultures, known as the Badarian and Naqada eras. The Badarians were an ancient people who brought elements of Mesopotamian culture to Egypt, along with the earliest instance of pictographic writing, or hieroglyphs, which dates from this period (around 3,200 BC). The Badarian culture was concentrated in the north of present-day Egypt, and the Naqada in the south.

However, excavations also reveal a significant minority of Semitic (Arabic) peoples were living in the Nile Delta valley alongside the whites, and in the very far south (in what later became southern Egypt and the Sudan) lived a large number of blacks, known as Nubians. The existence of these two nonwhite groups within Egypt was to have a major impact on the history of that civilization. Their presence also challenges the "environmental" theory of the origin of civilizations, because all three groups shared the same environment, yet produced very different levels of achievement.

Era 2: Early Dynastic Period, 3000–2686 BC

This period includes the First Dynasty (3000–2890 BC) and the Second Dynasty (2890–2686 BC).

Around the year 3000 BC, Egypt was unified under a king by the name of Menes, or Narmer, who established a capital city at Memphis on the Nile River. This year, therefore, marks the start of the Dynastic Period, called the Old Kingdom.

The early dynastic period included the first two dynasties, and the pharaoh Hor-Aha is recorded as the first king of the first dynasty.

IMHOTEP'S GREAT PYRAMID AND NECROPOLIS, SAQARA 2600 BC

The first great pyramid of Egypt, the step pyramid of Saqara, c. 2600 BC, with its equally impressive mortuary center in the foreground. The architect, Imhotep, was later made into a deity out of respect for this technological achievement.

Menes developed the idea of using channels to divert the waters of the Nile to irrigate land, and this irrigation system exists along the Nile River to this day. Menes was such a gifted and charismatic leader that he was deified by later Egyptians, and a cult developed which pictured him as a direct descendant of the gods, a tradition which then spread to other pharaohs. It is very likely that the word "man" originated with Menes.

During his reign, construction was started on the greatest city of ancient Egypt, Memphis, which became the capital of this first kingdom. Also about this time, Egyptian pictograph writing appeared, probably inspired by the Sumerian script. The Old Kingdom traded extensively with surrounding lands, obtaining wood from Lebanon and copper from mines in the Sinai Peninsula.

By the end of the second dynasty, Egyptian society had stabilized to the point where historians formally classified the next phase as the "Old Kingdom."

Era 3: Old Kingdom, 2686–2181 BC

This period includes the Third Dynasty (2686–2613 BC); the Fourth Dynasty (2613–2498 BC); the Fifth Dynasty (2498–2345 BC); and the Sixth

EGYPTIAN NOBLE LADY 2600 BC

A lapis lazuli inlaid blue-eyed statue of an Egyptian noble lady from the fourth dynasty, 2600 BC. Her dress and appearance are strikingly modern. Note her wig (her own hairline is visible). Wigs were commonplace in Egypt.

PHARAOHS OF THE 4TH DYNASTY 2613–2498 BC

Pharaoh Khafre, 4th Dynasty. The famous "sphinx" of Giza was constructed during his reign.

Pharaoh Menkaure and his consort, Khamerernebti II, 4th Dynasty.

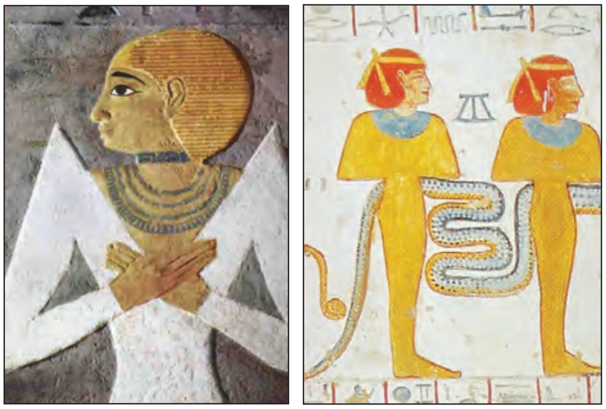
Pharaoh Shepsekaf, last king of the 4th Dynasty. The oldest surviving written decree dates from his reign.

Dynasty (2345–2181 BC). Called the "Old Kingdom," it was during this period that Memphis was established as the capital of Egypt, and the first step-pyramid, at Saqqara, was built for Pharaoh Zoser of the Third Dynasty.

The Giza Sphinx and Pyramids, 2500 BC

Around the year 2560 BC, Pharaoh Khufu, or Cheops, completed the Great Pyramid of Giza, which is today the most famous of all Egyptian pyramids and was the tallest man-made structure on earth for nearly four thousand years.

BLOND-HAIRED QUEEN HETOP-HERES II AND RED-HAIRED GODDESSES



Above left: Fourth Dynasty Queen Hetop-Heres II, the daughter of Cheops, the builder of the great pyramid, portrayed with red hair in the wall of her daughter's tomb (Meresankh III) at the Giza cemetery. Above right: Red-haired goddesses, from the tomb of Pharaoh Merneptah, 1213—1204 BC.

The Cheops pyramids are impressive today, and by the standards of the time, they must have appeared to be a superhuman achievement. Twenty years in the building, these pyramids used between five and six million tons of stone, some blocks being moved over five hundred miles, with almost perfect masonry work on site, so that the alignment variance of the stones even today is less than one percent. The greatest pyramid reaches 479 feet (146 meters)—higher than St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome (which remains the largest Christian cathedral in the world).

Queen Hetep-Heres II Portrayed a Blonde

Because of the pyramids, Cheops remains one of the most famous pharaohs of this First Kingdom. His daughter, Queen Hetep-Heres II, of the Fourth Dynasty, is shown in a colored bas-relief in a tomb to have been a distinct blonde. Her hair is painted a bright yellow, stippled with little red horizontal lines, and her skin is white.[4]

Shortly after the Giza pyramid was built, the equally famous Sphinx was constructed in its near vicinity.

The degree of sophistication of the Old Kingdom is perhaps best revealed by the fact that the first fixed calendar based on the solar cycle—and thus with 365 days in a year—is confirmed as being used during the reign of Shepseskaf (c. 2510 BC).

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[4] *The Races of Europe*, Carleton Stevens Coon, New York City, Macmillan. 1939, p.98.

Race War with Nubia

Clashes between the Egyptians and the black Nubians had long been a feature of Egyptian history, with the first campaigns against the Nubians launched by Old Kingdom pharaohs around 2900 BC. In 2570 BC, Pharaoh Sneferu launched a concerted attack upon Nubia. Egyptian records show that seventy thousand prisoners were taken.

In 1296 BC, Egypt conquered Nubia and built a series of massive forts to protect its southern borders against the Nubians, with the most famous of these being the fort at Buhen, which had walls that were over 364 feet (110 meters) high and almost 15 feet (4.5 meters) thick.

Egyptian Writings about Blacks

The white Egyptians left many written references to the black population in Nubia and in their own country. An overview of these written inscriptions is highly worthwhile and devastates claims by pro-black historians who, in an attempt to distort the historical record, claim that the ancient Egyptian civilization was black in racial origin.

The most complete record and translation of these scripts was undertaken by Professor James Henry Breasted, Professor of Egyptology and Oriental History at the University of Chicago, in his work *History of Egypt, from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest*, Second Edition, 1909. The writings below come from Breasted's work.

Africans Used as Soldiers—the Sixth Dynasty (2345–2181 BC)

An inscription that was written by Count Uni, governor of the South, and an official of the Old Kingdom, reads as follows:

> "His majesty made war on the Asiatic Sand-Dwellers and his majesty made an army of many ten thousands: in the entire South . . . among the Irthet blacks, the Mazoi blacks, the Yam blacks, among the Wawat blacks, among the Kau blacks, and in the land of Temeh."

This is an example of an Old Kingdom (2980–2475 BC) pharaoh using thousands of blacks as mercenaries. The army was sent into southern Palestine and

> ". . . returned in safety after it had hacked up the land of the Sand-Dwellers. His majesty sent me to dig five canals in the South, and to make three cargo-boats and four row boats of Acacia wood of Wawat.
>
> "Then the black chiefs of Irthet, Waway, Yam, and Mazoi drew timber therefore, and I did the whole in only one year.
>
> "The pharaoh came to inspect this work

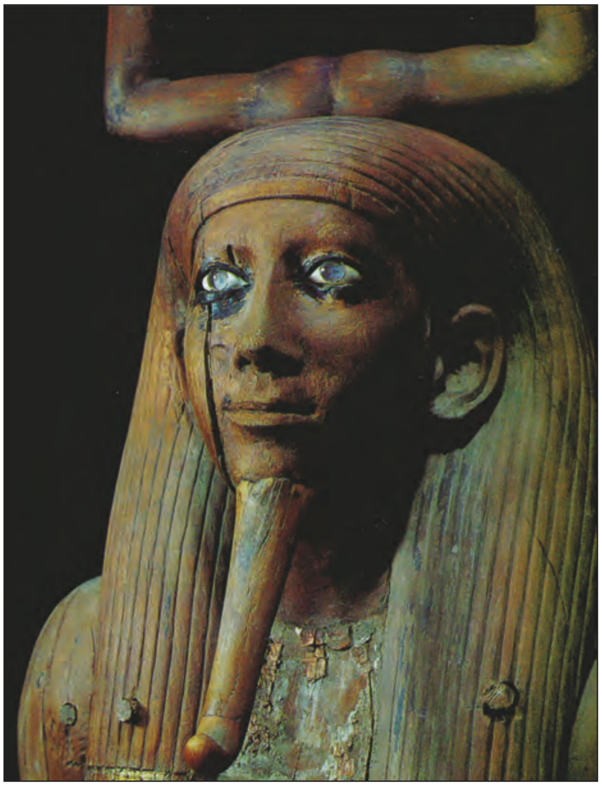
HEMIUNU, ARCHITECT OF THE GIZA PYRAMIDS

The Egyptian Prince Hemiunu (c. 2570 BC), recorded as the architect of the Great Pyramid of Giza. He was buried next to his greatest work.

ENDURING MONUMENTS TO EGYPT'S GREATNESS

Unequaled for sheer scale and magnificence, the Great Pyramids of Giza stand as towering monuments to the architects and engineers who oversaw their creation. Using over six million individual blocks in the greatest pyramid, that of Cheops, the masons used a limestone casing which slotted together with perfect symmetry.

WOODEN KING HOR STATUE WITH QUARTZ EYES

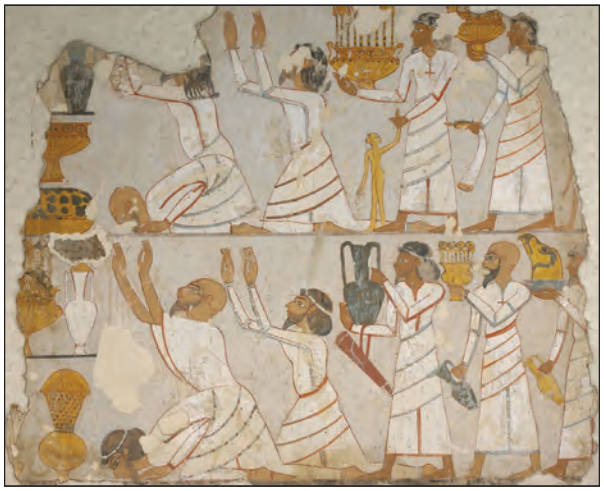


An original wooden statue of the Egyptian King Hor (c. 1783–1633 BC), on display at the Cairo Museum, Egypt. The eyes of the statue, inlaid with quartz or lapis lazuli, shine up either blue or gray, depending upon the lighting.

PHARAOH SOBKHOTEP, 13TH DYNASTY

A portrait of Pharaoh Sobkhotep of the 13th Dynasty (1803–1649 BC) at the Temple of Montu, near Karnak, Luxor.

SEMITES PRESENT TRIBUTE TO SOBKHOPTEP



Semites, clearly identified as racially foreign, present tributes to the Egyptian pharaoh. A painted scene from the tomb of Pharaoh Sobkhotep of the 13th Dynasty (1803–1649 BC) at Thebes.

> and at the coming of the king himself, standing behind the hill country, while the chiefs of Mazoi, Irthet, and Wawat did obeisance and gave great praise."

This writing shows very clearly the use of blacks as labor and illustrates how they were slowly but surely drawn into Egyptian society.

Era 4: First Intermediate Period, 2181–1991 BC

This period includes the Seventh Dynasty (2181–2160 BC); the Eighth Dynasty (2160–2130 BC); the Ninth Dynasty (2130–2040 BC); the Tenth Dynasty (2040–1991 BC); and the Eleventh Dynasty (2134–1991 BC).

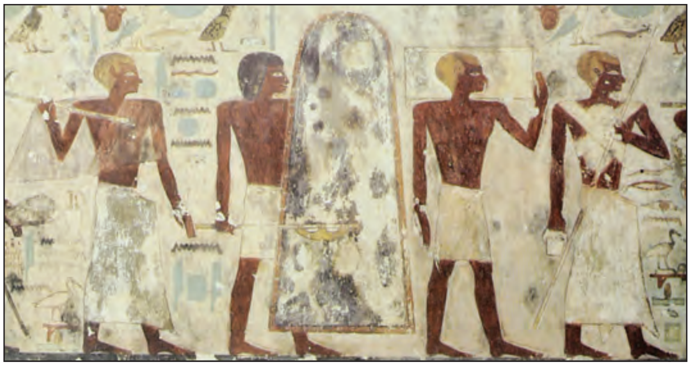
The Old Kingdom came to an end in a series of civil wars and factional breakaways from the central authority, leading to the first intermediate period. This lasted until 2055 BC, when one of the local princes, Nebhepetre Mentuhotep II, subdued all rivals and reunited Egypt.

Significantly, he also reconquered Nubia in the far south, which had gained its independence during the breakup of the Old Kingdom. The reunification of Egypt is marked by the advent of the Middle Kingdom.

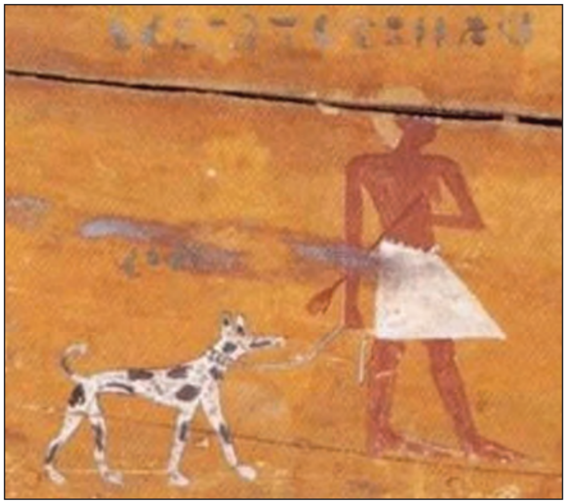
Era 5: The Middle Kingdom, 2055–1650 BC

This period includes part of the Eleventh Dynasty (Reconquered Egypt) (2134–1991 BC); the Twelfth Dynasty (1991–1803 BC); the Thirteenth Dynasty (1803–1649 BC); and the Fourteenth Dy-

MIDDLE KINGDOM IMAGES OF EGYPTIANS WITH BLOND HAIR



A mural in the tomb of Djehutihotpe, Deir el-Bersha, dating from the Middle Kingdom, 2055–1650 BC. Note once again the figures portrayed with blond hair. This illustration, and others like it, show clearly that there were people of different physical appearances in Egypt by the time of the Middle Kingdom, from when this mural dates.



Coffin from the twelfth dynasty (1976–1847 BC). The Egyptian nobleman Khui, walking his dog. Note his blond hair color. It was a common artistic style in many ancient Mediterranean cultures to portray men with red skins and women with white skins. This was done, presumably to reflect the fact that the men would have been outside working in the fields. This red-skin/white-skin artistic convention can also be seen in early Greek and Roman art forms, such as at the Palace of Knossos in Crete and in the Etruscan tombs near Rome.

nasty (Hyksos rulers; hence overlapped with the Thirteenth Dynasty, 1705–1690 BC). The Middle Kingdom was marked by great cultural achievements, not by great building efforts.

Most of the pharaohs' time was absorbed in fighting border wars with numerous enemies, and it was during this period that the great invasions of Nubia were conducted by the famous Pharaoh Sesostris III (also known as Senusret III).

"Kush the Vile"—12th Dynasty, 1991–1803 BC

A sandstone stela found in the sanctuary of Wadi Halfa contains an account of the Nubian expedition of Pharaoh Sesostris I, which carried this king's wars to their southernmost limits.

At the top of this stela there is a relief showing Sesostris I standing facing the Lord of Thebes, who says:

> "I have brought for thee all countries which are in Nubia, beneath thy feet."

The inscription of Prince Amenim, which is carved into the stone in the doorway of his cliff-tomb in Benihasin, describes the black lands as "vile." It reads as follows ("Kush" was one of the black lands):

> "I passed Kush sailing southward . . . then his majesty returned in safety having overthrown his enemies in Kush the vile."

The inscription on the stela of Sihathor, an "Assistant Treasurer," is now in the British Museum, and reads as follows:

> "I reached Nubia of the blacks . . . I forced the Nubian chiefs to wash gold."

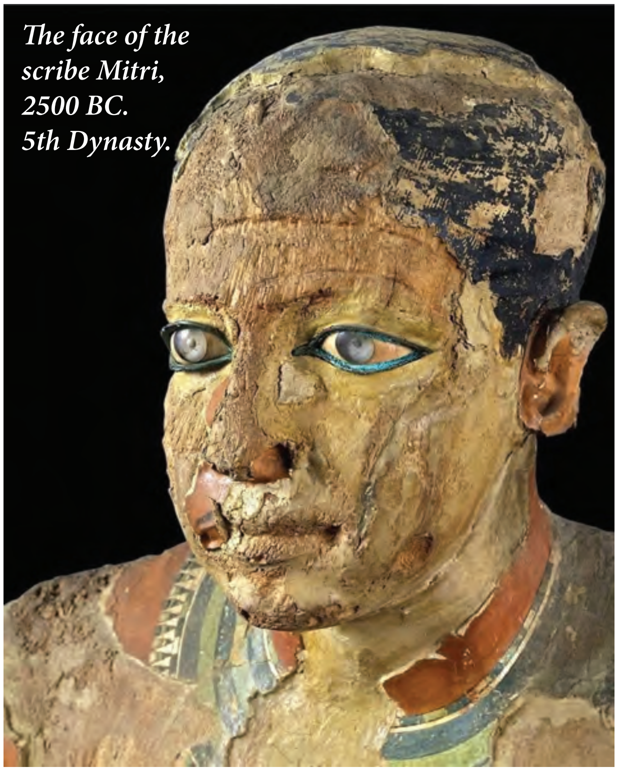
"To Prevent That any Black Should Cross. . ."

The final conquest of Nubia was attained by Sesostris III in 1840 BC. This king conducted four campaigns against the blacks and erected several forts at strategic points, making Nubia a permanent colony of Egypt.

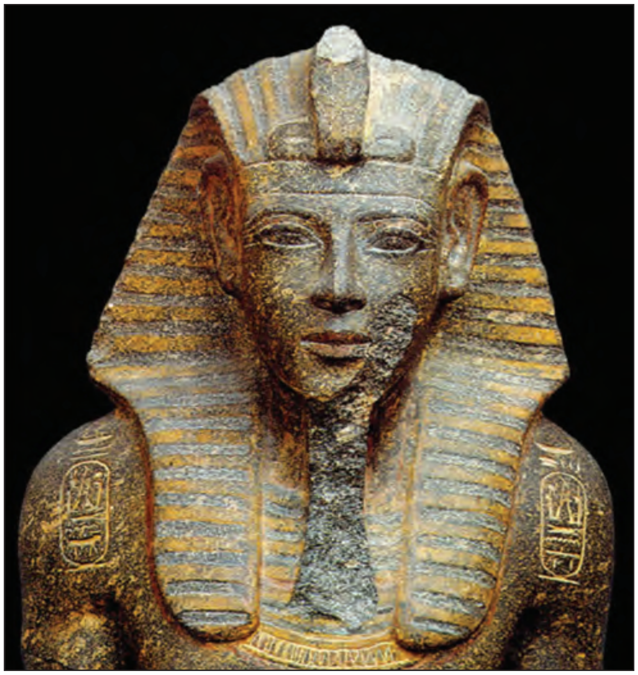
The first Semneh stela inscription recounting the subjugation of Nubia by Sesostris III reads as follows:

> "Southern boundary, made in the year 8, under the majesty of the king of Upper and Lower Egypt, Sesostris III . . . in order to prevent that any black should cross it, by water or by land, with a ship, or any herds of the blacks; except a black who shall come to do trading in Iken, or with a commission. Every good thing shall be done with them but without allowing a ship of the blacks to pass by Heh, going downstream, forever."

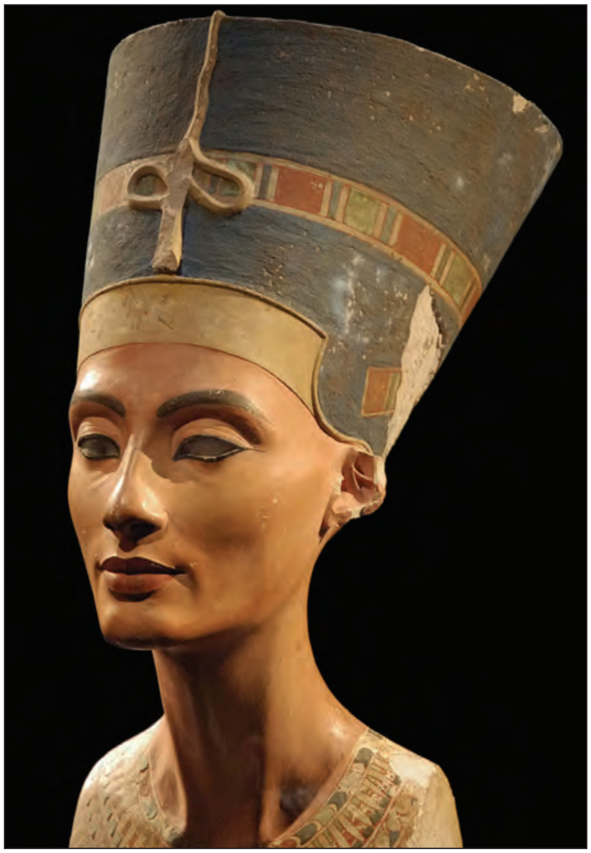
RACIAL TYPES DEPICTED IN ANCIENT EGYPTIAN ART



The face of the scribe Mitri, 2500 BC. 5th Dynasty.

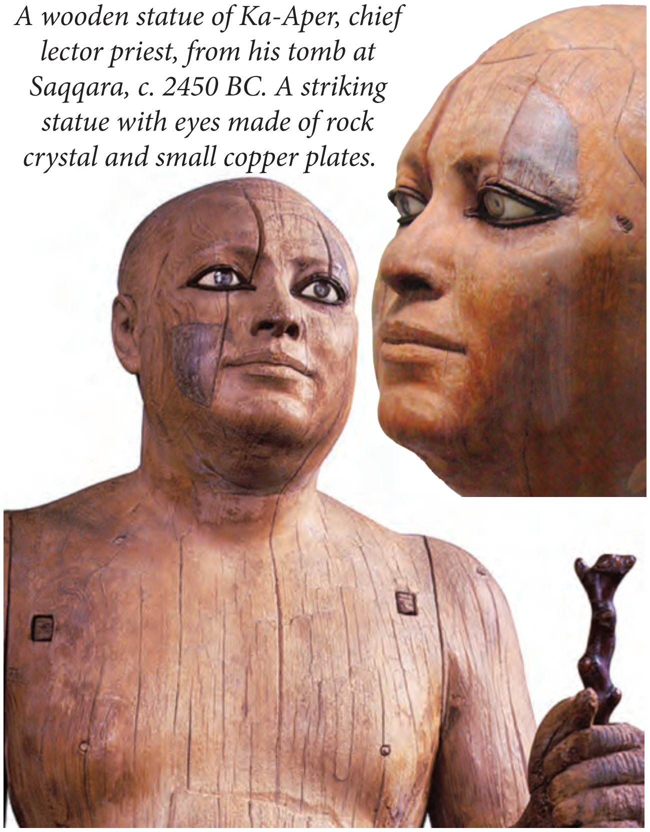


A statue of Pharaoh MerenPtah (Siptah), 19th Dynasty, (1295—1186 BC), who successfully defended Egypt against a serious invasion from Libya from the "Sea Peoples," a Viking-like European tribe whose raids ravaged the eastern Mediterranean.



The famous bust of the Queen Nefertiti, 1370–1330 BC, wife of Pharaoh Akhenaten.

A wooden statue of Ka-Aper, chief lector priest, from his tomb at Saqqara, c. 2450 BC. A striking statue with eyes made of rock crystal and small copper plates.



The last great ruler of the Middle Kingdom, Amenemhet III, allowed Semitic settlers to enter the Upper Nile Delta to provide labor, and this marked the start of a large-scale Semitic influx into Egypt. Their numbers grew, and, aided by an outside invasion (the Hyksos), brought an end to the Middle Kingdom.

Era 6. Second Intermediate Period 1785–1550 BC

This period includes the Fifteenth Dynasty (1674–1535 BC); the Sixteenth Dynasty ("Hyksos" era dynasty 1660–1600 BC); and the Seventeenth Dynasty (1650–1549 BC).

Around the year 1785 BC, the Semites which Amenemhet III had allowed to settle in the Nile Delta had grown in numbers to the point where they were able to seize control of the eastern Delta town of Avaris and its surrounding area.

The Pharaoh's court was forced to retreat south to Thebes, where the Egyptians were treated as subject peoples and forced to pay tribute.

The usurpers were assisted by an outside invasion of Semites around the year 1785 BC, who came to be known as the "Hyksos" (or "foreign rulers" in Egyptian). They had little trouble subjecting the Egyptians, aided through the use of iron weapons and the horse and chariot, neither of which the Egyptians had seen before.

The Hyksos had been attacked with this weapon by the Indo-European tribes who developed the chariot on their route south from their respective homelands in the north.

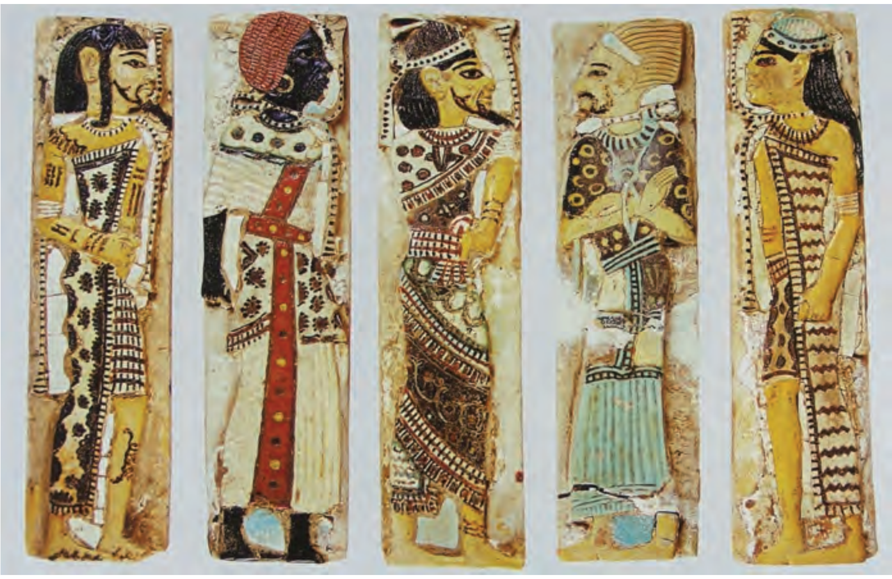
The Hyksos took on Egyptian culture and, in the art and culture of the time, portrayed themselves as pharaohs.

The real Egyptians, in the meantime, came under further pressure from the south. The black Africans from Kush were allied to the Semites in the north and waged relentless war against the Egyptians at Thebes.

Finally, the pharaohs Seqenenre Tao II and Kamose defeated the Nubians after a thirty-year war which ended in 1555 BC.

It took some two hundred years for the Egyptians to rebuild their strength and the Hyksos were finally expelled in 1580 BC—after the Egyptians had mastered the new weapon of horse and chariot and turned it against them.

FOREIGN RACES AS SEEN BY THE EGYPTIANS

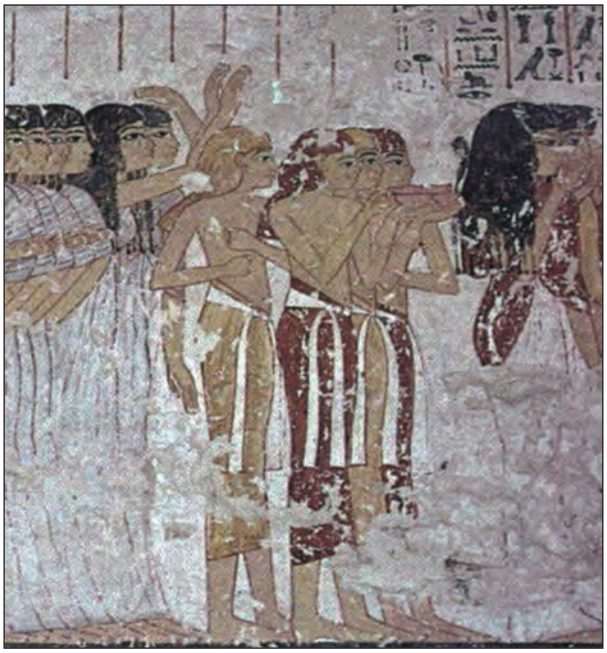


Tile inlays from the tomb of Ramses III, western Thebes, Medinet Habu, c. 1170 BC, depicting four Semites and a Nubian.

EGYPTIANS USE NUBIAN MERCENARIES

Black Nubian mercenaries, found in the tomb of Mesehti, c. 2000 BC. The Egyptians used Nubians for labor, as slaves, and in their military, as this detachment of archers so clearly shows. At the same time, the Egyptians waged numerous wars against Nubia in the south.

BLOND AND RED-HAIRED PONYTAILS, 1500 BC



A mural in the tomb of Ramose (state administrator under Amenophis III and Akhenaten), 1500 BC. Note the females with the blonde- and red-haired ponytails.

The Egyptian records show that the Minoans from Crete had helped fight the Semitic Hyksos invaders—clear evidence of the close links between the Egyptians and the Old European civilizations.

However, the result of two hundred years of Hyksos rule had left its mark upon the Egyptian population. As reflected in its art, the white population after this time began to show increasing signs of Semitic admixture.

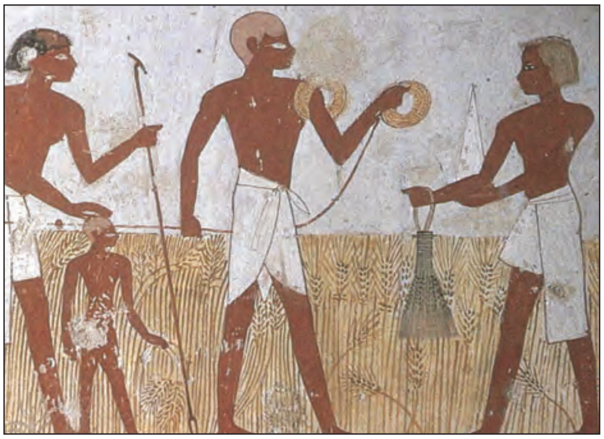
It was, however, with the Third Kingdom and its expansion into areas heavily populated by Nubians (blacks from Sudan) and Ethiopia (occupied by masses of Arab/Semitic peoples) that large numbers of these nonwhites came to be prominent in Egyptian society, either as slaves or freemen.

Era 7. The New Kingdom 1570—1069 BC

This period includes the Eighteenth Dynasty (1549–1292 BC); the Nineteenth Dynasty (1292–1186 BC); and the Twentieth Dynasty (1186–1069 BC).

The expulsion of the Hyksos persuaded the pharaohs to embark on a new set of military campaigns against their enemies. Under the great Ramesses kings (II and III), major wars were waged against the neighboring Semites and Nubians.

BLOND-HAIRED MEN, 1500 BC



A mural from the tomb of Ramose (state administrator under Amenophis III and Akhenaten), 1500 BC. Note males with blond hair.

It was during this era that the Egyptian empire reached its greatest geographical extent and included many of the lands today known as the Sinai, Palestine, Israel, parts of Syria, and as far north as southern Turkey. To the south, Egyptian rule extended deep into the present-day Sudan and included much of the Red Sea coastline.

It was during the New Kingdom that the tombs of Egypt's famous "Valley of Kings" were built as an alternative to the older tradition of entombing pharaohs in pyramids, and this led to the end of the great pyramid building period.

More notable pharaohs of this age included Hatshepsut (the famous female pharaoh), Akhenaten, Tutankhamun, Tuthmose, and of course, the two Ramesses kings, II and III.

This was, however, to be the last "great" era of Egyptian power, and after the death of Ramesses III, the New Kingdom went into steady decline—directly as a result of the racial population shift which was rapidly occurring in Egyptian society.

"He hath overthrown the chief of the Nubians"; The Eighteenth Dynasty 1580–1350 BC

The inscription of Ahmose reads:

> "Now after his majesty had slain the Asiatics, he ascended the river . . . to destroy the Nubian Troglodytes; his majesty made a great slaughter among them."

The Tombos Stela of Thutmose I reads:

> "He hath overthrown the chief of the Nubians; the black is helpless, defenseless, in his grasp. He hath united the boundaries of his

THUTMOSES III, 18TH DYNASTY

A particularly fine bust of the Pharaoh Thutmoses III, 1539–1295 BC, on display at the Egyptian Museum, Cairo.

> two sides, there is not a remnant among the curly-haired, who came to attack; there is not a single survivor among them . . . They fall by the sword . . . the fragments cut from them are too much for the birds."

In the annals of the great warrior king, Thutmose III, at the sixth Karnak pylon, there is a list that contains no less than 115 of the names of the towns and districts of the conquered Nubian regions.

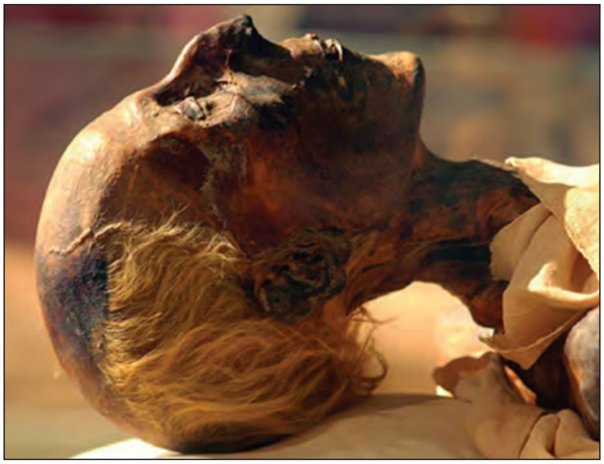
Another pylon at Karnak contains references to about four hundred towns, districts, and countries conquered in Nubia. Inscribed on one of the tablets is the famous "Hymn of Victory" which reads as follows:

> "I have bound together the Nubian Troglodytes by the tens of thousands. The northerners by hundreds of thousands as prisoners."

Another remarkable inscription is to be found on the Semneh stela of Amenhotep III, which is also in the British Museum in London. It reads as follows:

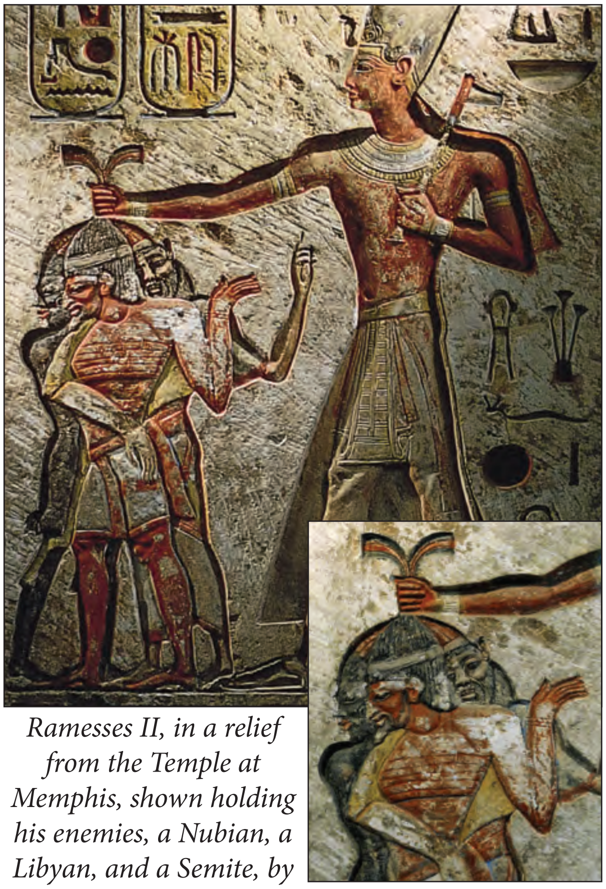
> "List of the captivity which his majesty took in the land of Ibbet the wretched. List of Prisoners and Killed: Living blacks 150 heads;

RAMSES II'S RED-HAIRED MUMMY



Ramesses II (1303 BC–1213 BC), commonly known as "Ramesses the Great," perhaps the most famous Pharaoh of all on account of his widespread exploits and military campaigns against all the enemies of Egypt, Semites, Libyans, and Nubians. The mummy has red hair and aquiline features.

RAMESSES II STRIKES DOWN HIS RACIAL ENEMIES



Ramesses II, in a relief from the Temple at Memphis, shown holding his enemies, a Nubian, a Libyan, and a Semite, by the hair, and preparing to strike them with an axe held in his other hand. Circa 1250 BC.

NORDIC NOBILITY IN ANCIENT EGYPT, CIRCA 1400 BC

Above left, Yuya, Egyptian nobleman from 1400 BC, father of Tiy, the wife of Pharaoh Amenhotep III. Yuya’s blond hair and facial structure have been well preserved by the embalming process. DNA testing on Yuya revealed that he had the Y-DNA haplogroup G2a and mtDNA haplogroup K, found today in the Caucasus and at low frequencies in Europe. Center, his equally blond-haired wife, Thuya, great grandmother of Tutankhamun. The mummies were discovered in a tomb at the Valley of the Kings at Thebes in 1905, and are currently in the Egyptian Museum, Cairo. Right: Queen Tiye (c. 1398 BC–1338 BC), wife of the Egyptian pharaoh Amenhotep III, mother of pharaoh Akhenaten and grandmother of pharaoh Tutankhamun. DNA tests conducted on 2020 revealed that she had the mtDNA Haplogroup K, found in six percent of Europeans. (“Insights from ancient DNA analysis of Egyptian human mummies: clues to disease and kinship,” Gad, Y. Z., et al., Human Molecular Genetics, *Volume 30, Issue R1, 1 March 2021, Pages R24–R28).*

> Archers 110 heads; Female blacks 250 heads; Servants of the blacks 55 heads; Their children 175 heads; Total 740 heads. Hands thereof 312. United with the living heads 1,052.”

Last Surge of Power Follows Hyksos Expulsion

The third (and last) great surge in Egyptian power came with the expulsions of the Semitic Hyksos. Adopting the horse and chariot, energetic and expansionist pharaohs set about consolidating Egypt and establishing an empire. Syria, Phoenicia, Palestine, Nubia, and northern Sudan (the latter with large black populations) were all conquered and incorporated into the Egyptian Empire.

The greatest expansionist king was Thutmose III (circa 1501–1447 BC). A series of tall, pointed stone columns (called obelisks) were built to commemorate his various campaigns. Five of his obelisks survived, and four today stand in Istanbul (transported to the then city of Constantinople in 357 AD), Rome (transported there in 357 AD), London (transported there in 1878), and New York (transported there in 1881).

Pharaoh Amenhotep III (1411–1375 BC) developed Thebes into the most magnificent city of the age. He also built many other huge and famous structures, including the temple of Luxor at the city of Thebes.

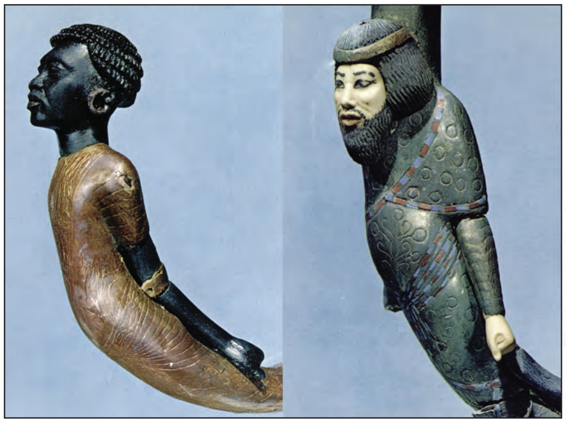
Tutankhamun—Stood on His Black and Semitic Enemies 1350 BC

Tutankhamun, the boy king (who died when he was eighteen), reigned around 1350 BC during the Eighteenth Dynasty. Although he died too young to become a pharaoh of any great significance in his own time, he gained fame when his tomb was discovered intact in 1924 (one of the few tombs to be found in such a good state, as most had been the subject of grave robbers many centuries before).

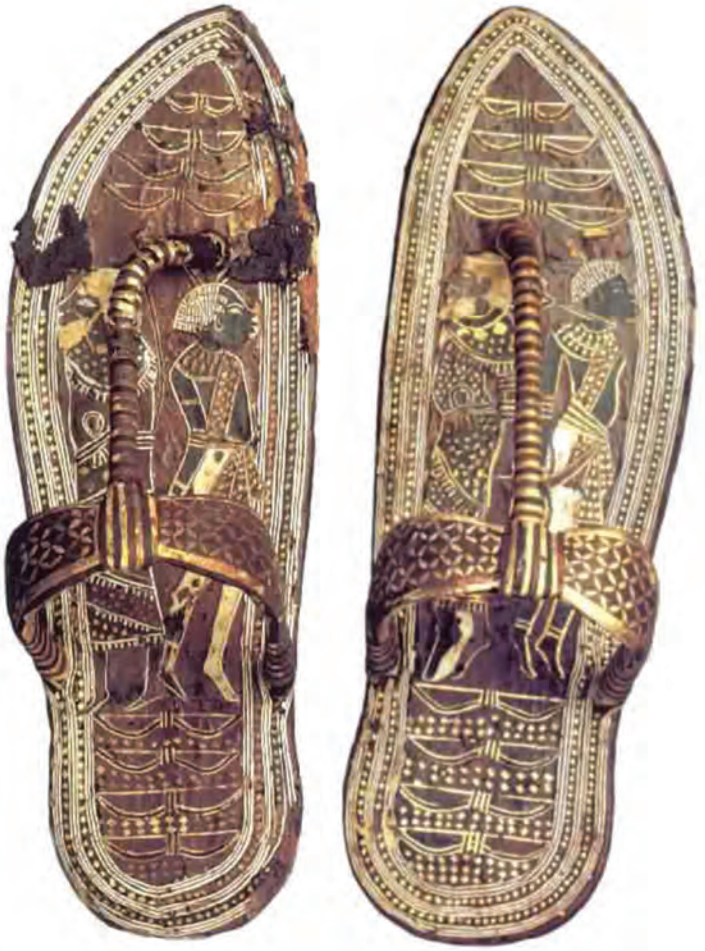
Tutankhamun’s golden burial mask is perhaps the most famous of all Egyptian artifacts, and is now widely used to symbolize ancient Egypt, even though a study of his mummy has revealed no specific likeness to the actual king.

Reconstructions of Tutankhamun’s face and DNA tests on his mummy have revealed his Eu-

RACIAL IMAGERY FROM TUTANKHAMUN'S TOMB

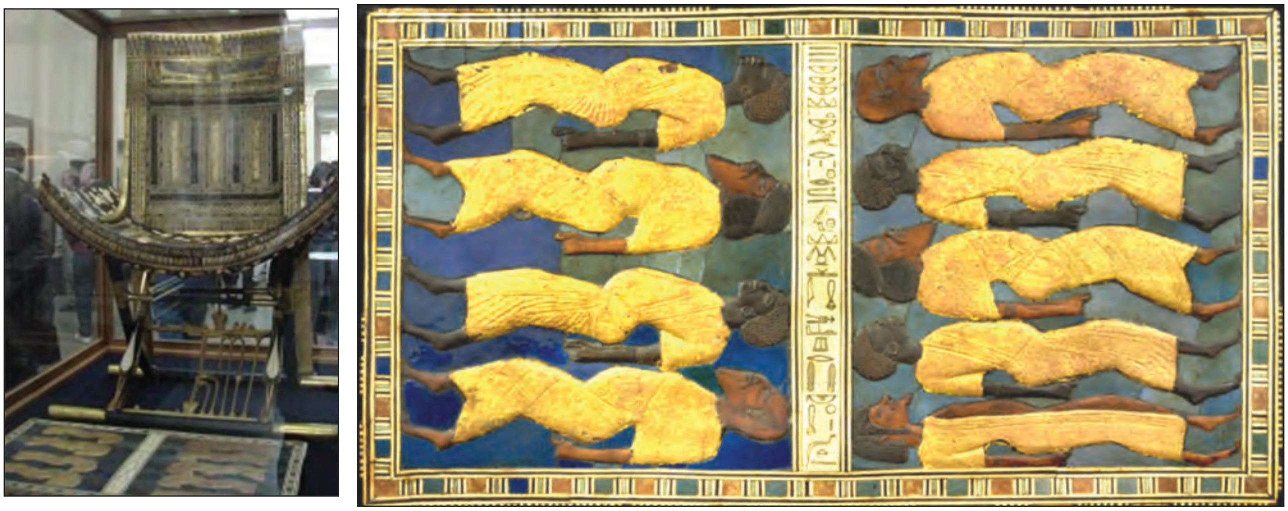


Tutankhamun's walking stick: The handle is made up of a bound Semite and a bound black figure—when the Egyptian king went for a walk with his royal walking stick, he held the enemies of Egypt in his hand.



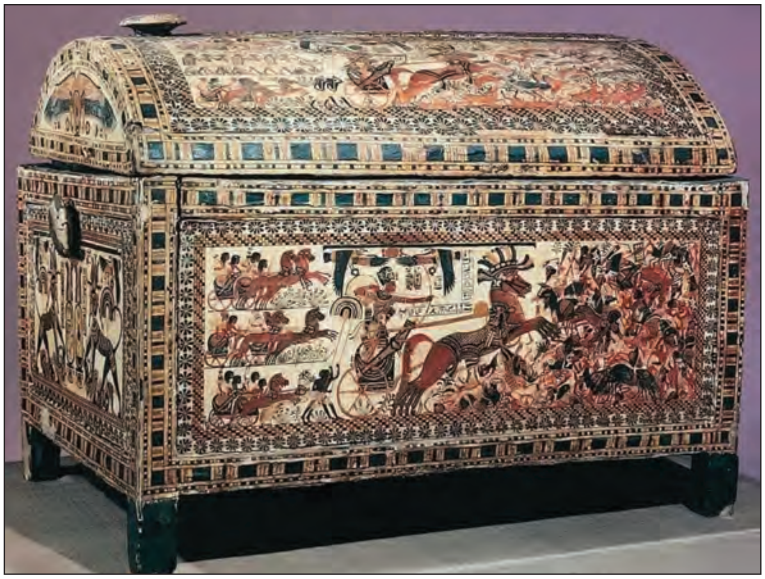
Tutankhamun's shoes: A pair of the king's sandals is inlaid with images of a Semite and a Nubian, allowing the pharaoh to trample his enemies underfoot when he walked.

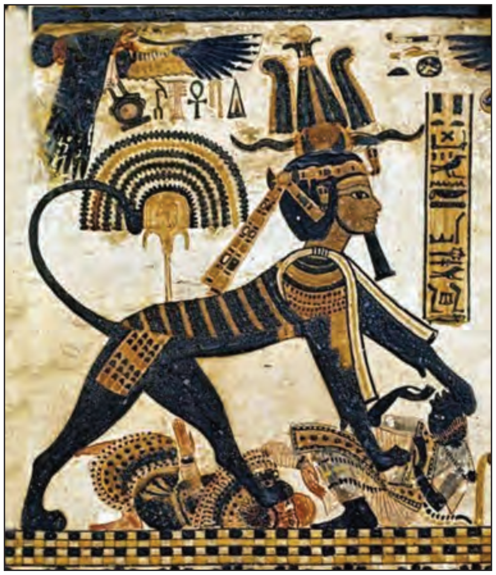
Tutankhamun's gold chariot, found in perfect condition in his tomb, is covered with carvings depicting the enemies of Egypt bound and captive, helpless before the king.



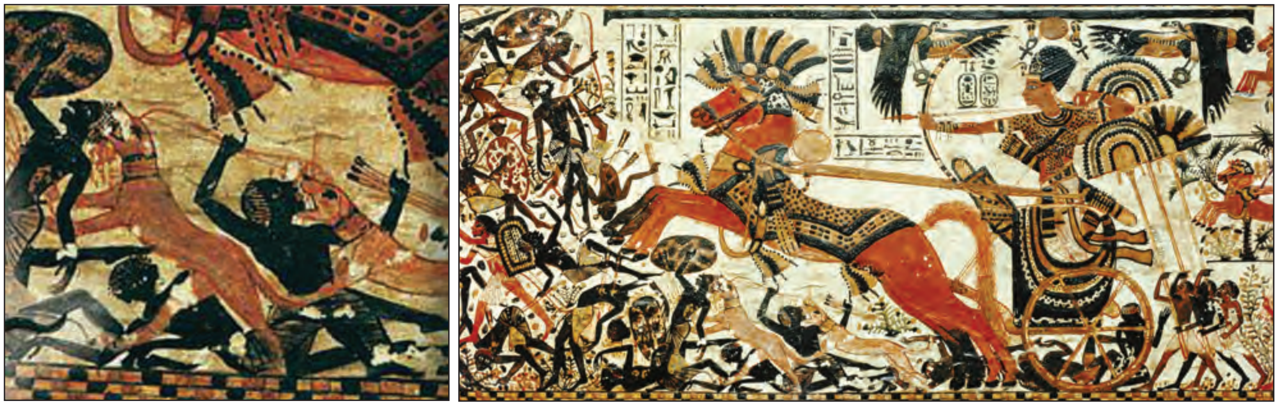
Tutankhamun's ecclesiastical throne, shown assembled, and a full view of the footrest below. Bound Semitic and black prisoners appear on the footstool. The Egyptian king would rest his feet on his foes.

RACIAL IMAGERY FROM TUTANKHAMUN'S TOMB

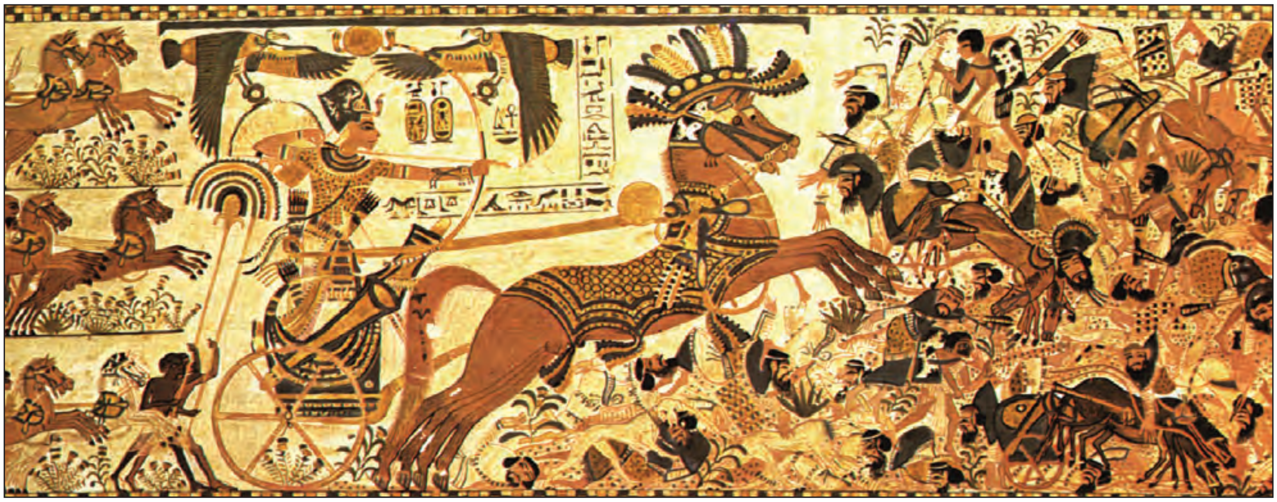




Tutankhamun's famous wooden chest, which was found in the antechamber of his tomb, shows the Egyptian king riding a chariot and trampling the enemies of Egypt: Nubians and Semites. Above right, a side panel depicting the king as a sphinx trampling his enemies underfoot.



Above and below, details from the sides of Tutankhamun's wooden chest, showing the king trampling the racial enemies of Egypt under his horses' feet and his chariot wheels. Note also the three black slaves, located at the rear of his chariot fanning Tutankhamun.



SETI I'S LIFELIKE MUMMY, 1320 BC

The mummy of Pharaoh Seti I is the most lifelike of the great pharaohs of Egypt, and a tribute to the embalmer's art. His European features remain crystal clear, even though his skin has been blackened by the passing of time. The excellent preservation process allows for a comparison with a color relief of his face made in his lifetime at the Temple at Abydos. Seti was the son of the great Ramses I and became pharaoh in 1320 BC. He reoccupied the lands in Syria lost to earlier Syrian invasions, conquered Palestine, and conducted campaigns against the Libyans and the Hittites.

HATSHEPSUT, PHARAOH 1485 BC

Pharaoh Hatshepsut, the wife of Pharaoh Thutmosis II and, after his death, Pharaoh in her own right. 18th Dynasty, circa 1485 BC. It was made to flank the processional pathway along the axis of Hatshepsut's temple at Deir el-Bahri. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

ropean features and a Y-Haplogroup R1b (one of the most common Western European haplotypes[5]), and mtDNA Haplogroup K (the same as his grandmother's, Queen Tiye; see above).

It is not, however, Tutankhamun's mummy which is the most interesting part of his short reign. It is his possessions found in his untouched tomb which have provided some of the most graphic racial images in all of Egyptology.

For example, one of Tutankhamun's thrones, the "ecclesiastical chair," has on its footrest the "Nine Bows"—the Egyptian name for the traditional enemies of Egypt. The finely crafted figures on the footrest are of nine Nubians and Semites tied together in chains.

They were positioned on the footrest so that when the pharaoh sat on his throne, his enemies would be beneath his feet. Other imagery played upon similar themes, always depicted Nubians and Semites being defeated by the all-powerful king. By Tutankhamun's time, then, the Egyptians were clearly aware of the growing numbers of their racial enemies creeping up on them. These graphic references to Egypt's racial enemies are ominous when it is considered that by the time of Tutankhamun, nonwhite slaves had already become commonplace. In addition to this, a significant number of Egyptians were now of mixed Egyptian/Semitic types. Significantly, Tutankhamun's widow attempted to strike an alliance with the Indo-European Hittites, who had, in the interim, become the leading power in the Middle East, by arranging her own marriage to a Hittite prince. (The marriage never took place, as the husband-to-be was killed just prior to the ceremony.)

The New Kingdom split into differing segments at the end of the twentieth dynasty, and shortly thereafter, Egypt was once again invaded by outsiders who easily conquered the by-now increasingly mixed-race population.

The Fall of White Egypt

From the time of Tutankhamun onward, the final decline of Egypt was irreversible. Later kings tried to reverse the trend, and they sometimes succeeded, temporarily, in rolling back the waves of

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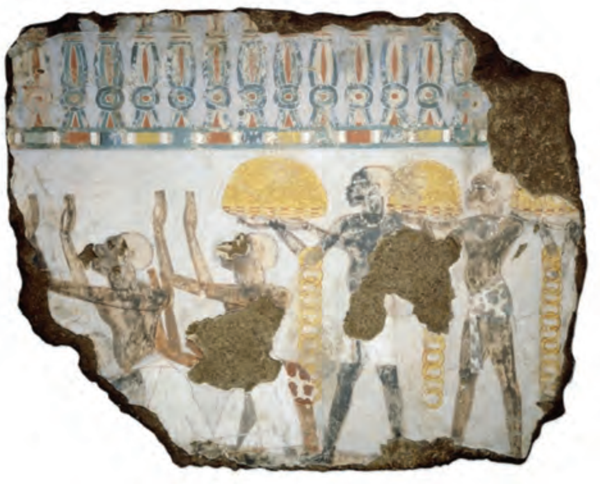
[5] "Half of European men share King Tut's DNA," *Reuters*, August 1, 2011.

NUBIANS BRING OFFERINGS TO THE PHARAOH



Nubians bringing gold offerings to the pharaoh. Wall-painting from the tomb of Sobekhotep, Thebes, c. 1400 BC, New Kingdom, reign of Thutmose IV.

conquest and counter-conquest in Palestine and Syria. One pharaoh even managed to take a Hittite princess as a bride. But there were fresh enemies: Egypt was now attacked by new Indo-European invaders emerging from the Aegean, the so-called Sea People. As their name implied, they arrived by boat and raided Egyptian settlements, leaving again by the means by which they arrived.

These Sea People were mainly composed of Philistines from Asia Minor and Achaeans from mainland Greece. Egyptian illustrations of the time show prisoners with light hair and light eyes—Sea People raiders unfortunate enough to fall into captivity in Egypt, where they could expect no mercy.

White Egyptians Disappear circa 800 BC

Ever since the time of the Hyksos invasion and the fall of the Second Kingdom, the demographic shift among the Egyptian population had been against the original whites.

Slowly but surely, nonwhites or mixed-racial types began to make up more and more of that country's population—drawn in as slaves, laborers, immigrants, or invaders.

These other racial types were of two sorts: Semites (who the Egyptians called "Sand Dwellers") and blacks, from the region of Nubia in the far south (present-day Sudan). A review of Egypt's relations with Nubia is therefore crucial to understanding what happened to the white Egyptians, and why they vanished.

Era 8. Third Intermediate Period (1069–656 BC)

This period includes the Twenty-First Dynasty (1069–945 BC); the Twenty-Second Dynasty (945–720 BC); the Twenty-Third Dynasty (837–728 BC); the Twenty-Fourth Dynasty (732–720 BC); and the Twenty-Fifth Dynasty (732–656 BC).

The first pharaoh of the third intermediate period, Smendes, came from south Egypt but his origin is uncertain. Some historians claim he was one of the "Libyans" (an ill-defined group who were always portrayed in Egyptian art as particularly Caucasian-looking).

None of this is certain, but what can be said for sure is large numbers of these "Libyans" settled in the western Delta and were powerful enough to break away into their own kingdom around the year 945 BC. At the same time, the rest of Egypt fractured into different ethnically-based component kingdoms.

What is certain, as the DNA studies have shown, is that by the year 800 BC there were few if any white people left in Egypt, having all either died or miscegenated out under the wave of racial newcomers.

Mixed-Race Pharaoh Is the Last Pharaoh

In 727 BC, the Nubian king Piye invaded Egypt from the south, and established the twenty-fifth dynasty. This era was the first genuinely black African rule in Egypt, and although the twenty-fifth dynasty is counted as part of the historical line of rulers of Egypt, it had no links at all with the earlier kings of that land.

The last pharaoh of this Nubian dynasty, Taharka, whose mixed-race ancestry is clear from sculptures, was driven from his throne by invading Assyrians, and it is from this fall of Taharka that historians formally date the fall of Egypt, although in reality the last true Egyptian had disappeared nearly two hundred years previously. The twenty-fifth dynasty, then, marks the complete and final break in ancient Egyptian history with the post-Pharaonic era. This dynasty came to an abrupt end when Egypt was invaded by the Assyrians.

Era 9. Late Period 672 BC–332 BC

This period includes the Twenty-sixth Dynasty (655–525 BC); the Twenty-seventh Dynasty (525–404 BC); the Twenty-eighth Dynasty (404–398 BC); the Twenty-ninth Dynasty (398–380 BC);

the Thirtieth Dynasty (380–343 BC); and the Thirty-first Dynasty (343–332 BC)—although this last "dynasty" was in fact made up of Persian conquerors, and are, therefore, often not recognized as "Egyptian."

Of course, if this rule is applied consistently, then all dynasties from the Third Intermediate Period should also not be counted as "Egyptian," as the racial demographic shift had already substantially changed the population of that nation away from its founders.

It was during the Late Period that the weak Nubian rulers of Egypt were easily displaced by an Assyrian invasion, and it was the Assyrian conquerors who set up the twenty-sixth dynasty. Egypt then was overrun by the Persians under Cambyses II in 525 BC, and remained under Persian rule until 332 BC, when the country was handed over to the Macedonian Alexander the Great's armies after his victories in Persia.

NUBIAN AFRICANS: FROM SLAVE TO THE LAST PHARAOH

Nubian captives, from the tomb of Horemheb XVIII, Saqqara, 18th Dynasty, c.1332 BC. (Egyptian Museum of Bologna). By the 25th Dynasty, a Nubian would be Pharaoh, and Egypt would collapse.

Era 10. Ptolemaic Period 332 BC–30 BC

Egypt then fell under the rule of Alexander the Great, and it is from this time that the city of Alexandria was named after the Macedonian king. Upon Alexander the Great's death, one of his generals, Ptolemy, was given Egypt to administer.

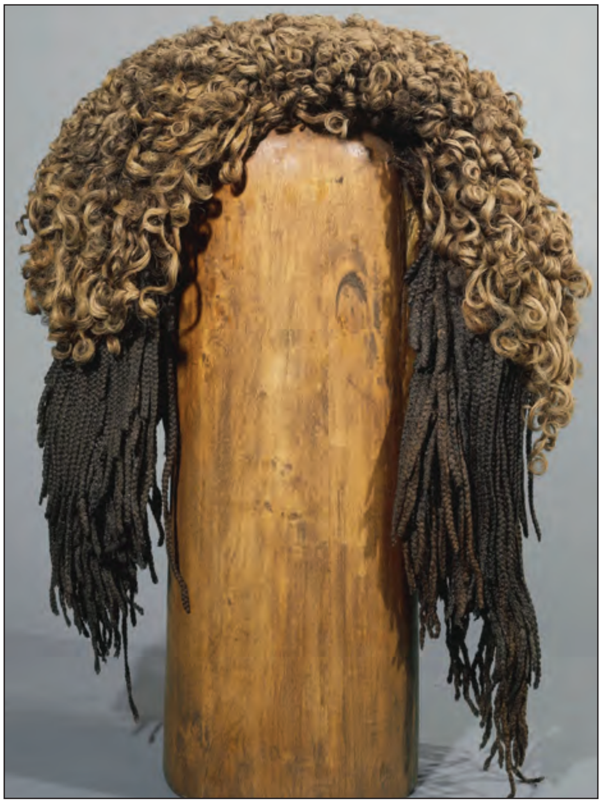
This was the start of what is known as the Ptolemaic period of Egyptian history. The Ptolemies ruled Egypt until 30 BC, when the last Queen, the

NUBIAN PHARAOHS MARK THE FINAL COLLAPSE OF ANCIENT EGYPT, 25TH DYNASTY

Shabako (716–702 BC), second ruler of the Egyptian twenty-fifth dynasty. He rose to power after the death of his brother Piye, the Nubian leader who conquered Egypt in 727 BC. By this time, the civilization of Ancient Egypt was at an end.

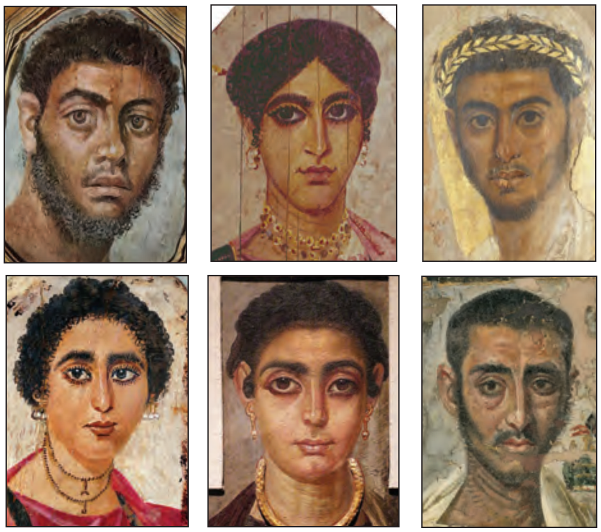
Taharka, the last Nubian Pharaoh, twenty-fifth dynasty, 690–664 BC. Taharka was the last of the four Nubian pharaohs after the black conquest of mixed-race Egypt. His reign came to an end when the Assyrians invaded and crushed the Nubian kingdom. Although the Nubians tried briefly to reestablish their dynasty after Taharka, they were brushed aside by the Assyrians. Although the twenty-fifth dynasty is supposed to have formally ended the "ancient Egyptian" line, the true Egyptians had long since vanished, and their civilization with them.

EGYPTIAN WIG SYMBOLIZES RACIAL CHANGE



An Egyptian wig, on display in the British Museum, London. It dates from 1185 BC (nineteenth dynasty) and tells the tale of the change in racial makeup of Egyptian society. It is made of pure human hair, knotted into a linen cap, an indication of the hair types (and thus races) present in Egypt. On top, blond hair is curled in place with beeswax, while underneath nestles Negroid hair, representing the increasing Nubian, or black, population. The style of the wig accurately reflects the changing racial makeup of Egypt at this time. Within three hundred years of its manufacture, the last whites would be miscegenated into a mixed-race mass, and a Nubian pharaoh would be on the throne.

COFFIN PORTRAITS REVEAL MIXED RACIAL TYPES IN EGYPT, 1ST CENTURY BC



Hundreds of portraits painted on coffins have been found in the Faiyum Oasis, south of Cairo, dating from the first century BC, or the end of the Ptolemaic Era. There is a great range of phenotypes, but all show mixed racial heritage, reflecting accurately the population of the time. Even these types would further miscegenate after the Muslim invasion of Egypt some 800 years later.

famous Cleopatra VII, committed suicide after her disastrous alliance with the losing side in the then-ongoing Roman civil war.

Famous Cleopatra a Macedonian

Although there is a popular perception that Cleopatra and the Ptolemies were "Egyptians," they were nothing of the sort. They, their families, and the Ptolemaic ruling class all came from Macedonia in northern Greece, and hence bear no direct relation to the ancient Egyptians. They did, however, adopt much of the dress, culture, and customs of the ruined civilization which they found in the deserts of Egypt, and thus many of the surviving artifacts and buildings from the Ptolemaic period appear to be "ancient" Egyptian—but they are not.

Roman Province and Mixed Race Population

After 30 BC, Egypt became a Roman province, and in 395 AD was given to the Eastern Roman Empire to administer. By this time, the population of Egypt had taken on the form as it can be seen in the present day, racially speaking. This is most evident in the well-known "Fayum coffin portraits," recovered from the Faiyum Oasis burial ground in central Egypt, dating from the 1st century BC onward.

It was from this time that the Coptic Christians date, as Egypt became one of the first countries to be established as a Christian state. This Christian Egyptian culture was almost entirely extinguished in 642 AD when Muslim armies from Saudi Arabia captured Egypt and turned it into part of the Islamic Caliphate.

Chapter 11: Genesis of Western Thought—Classical Greece

The Greek peninsula, along with its northern borders, the Balkans, has a long and rich history to which Western Civilization owes much of its artistic, literary, architectural, and philosophical heritage. It has also produced an astonishing array of technological developments. It is no exaggeration to say that the very concept of "classical" often refers to anything that draws its influence from this ancient civilization.

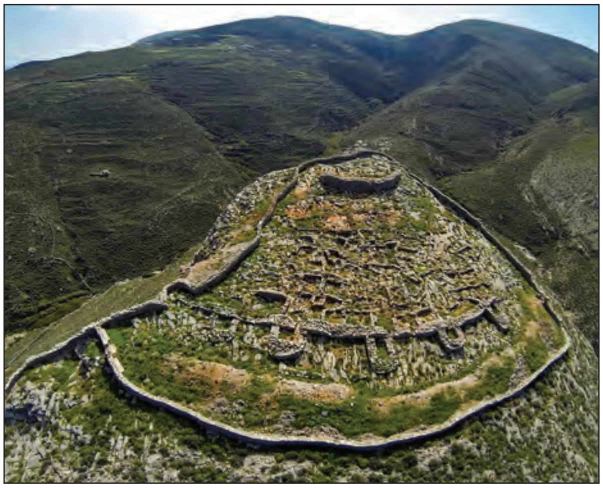
What is today regarded as "Classical Greece" lasted for around 500 years—from 800 to 300 BC. However, the process leading to that period of greatness started much earlier with the Old European civilizations in the Aegean and did not end until after 300 BC, with the establishment of the Macedonian Alexandrian Empire

Old Europeans Created the Earliest Aegean Civilizations: 3000 to 1000 BC

The earliest civilizations in the region now known as Greece emerged after the end of the Neolithic Era on the islands of Crete and the Cyclades, an island chain in the South Aegean. These early civilizations were established by one of the earliest components of the white race, the "Old Europeans," and likely originated in Anatolia. In terms of racial type, these people appear to have mostly had darker hair, brown eyes, and medium stature—in other words, fairly typical Early European Farmers (EFF) types.

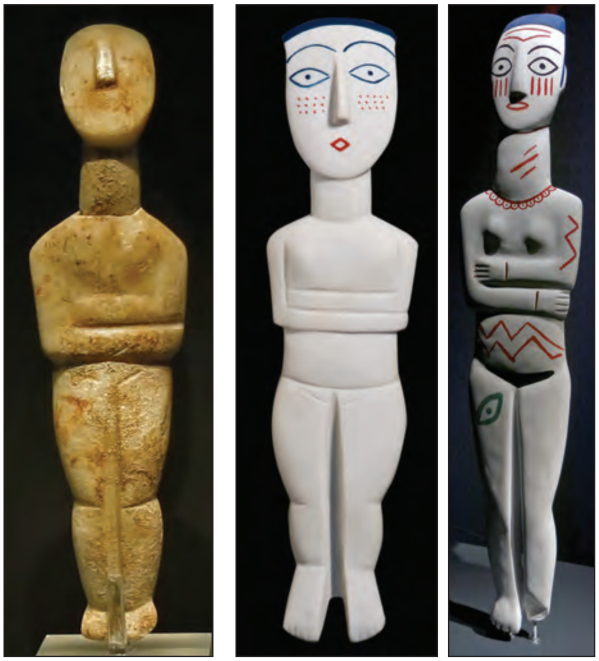
The age of these civilizations can be put into perspective when we realize that they were contemporaneous with the height of Ancient Egyptian civilization—and indeed, many cultural similari-

CYCLADIC SETTLEMENT OF KASTRI, 2700 BC



The scale of the Cycladic civilization can be gleaned from this aerial image of the settlement of Kastri on the island of Syros. Dating from the Early Cycladic Period II (2700–2300 BC), it has yielded a wealth of archaeological material.

CYCLADIC ART: ORIGINALLY BRIGHTLY PAINTED



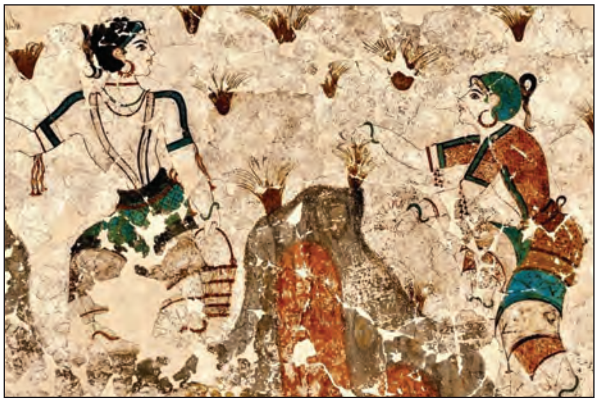
Above left: An example of the Cycladic idol forms found on the Cyclades Islands, dating back to the earliest Greek civilization. They vary in size from tiny figures that can fit in a human's hand to life-size and larger. All are made of marble, and contrary to popular belief, they were not left as white stone, but were brightly painted. Many of the examples discovered still bear traces of the original colors used, and reconstructions based on this original paint illustrate their authentic appearance. (Museum of Cycladic Art, Athens).

ties, such as their art styles, and, in the case of the Cretan civilization, even the use of hieroglyphic writing—indicate a significant degree of contact between the nations. The Cretan civilization reached impressive heights, while the Cycladic culture, named after the Cyclades islands where it was discovered, particularly noted for its distinctive range of human-shaped idol figures made of stone, survived until around 1000 BC. It then "fell," or rather was supplanted by a new culture brought by the first wave of Indo-European invaders, known as the Mycenaeans.

Linear A and Linear B Writing—First Indications of a Subracial Shift

The forms of writing used by the early Aegean civilizations are known as "Linear A" and "Linear B." The earliest surviving examples of Linear A script date from around 1850 BC, although it was likely in use much earlier than that. Linear A script has never been deciphered, but Linear B script was deciphered in 1952, mainly because its language is the Mycenaean Greek dialect and it was used for the economic administration of the palaces of the Mycenaean Civilization—the culture brought by the first major Indo-European invasion of the Greek mainland.

"SAFFRON GATHERERS," AKROTIRI, SANTORINI



An insight into the racial types of the early Greek Aegean civilization is provided by this mural from the settlement of Akrotiri on the island now known as Santorini. Named the "Saffron Gatherers" and "Mistress of Animals," these figures are fine representations of the art of the period. Akrotiri was destroyed by the eruption of a volcano around 1600 BC, which wiped out over 60 percent of the island, creating the distinctive "ring" landform of Santorini Island today. The eruption is deemed to have been the largest in human history and was even noted in Egyptian records. Akrotiri was completely buried in ash and was only excavated in 1967.

Mycenaeans: First Indo-European Invasion Triggers Major Cultural Change

The first wave of Indo-Europeans, who came to be known as the Mycenaeans, swept into mainland Greece from the north and dominated Greece and Greek culture in one form or another from their first appearance—circa 1900 BC—for the next 900 years.

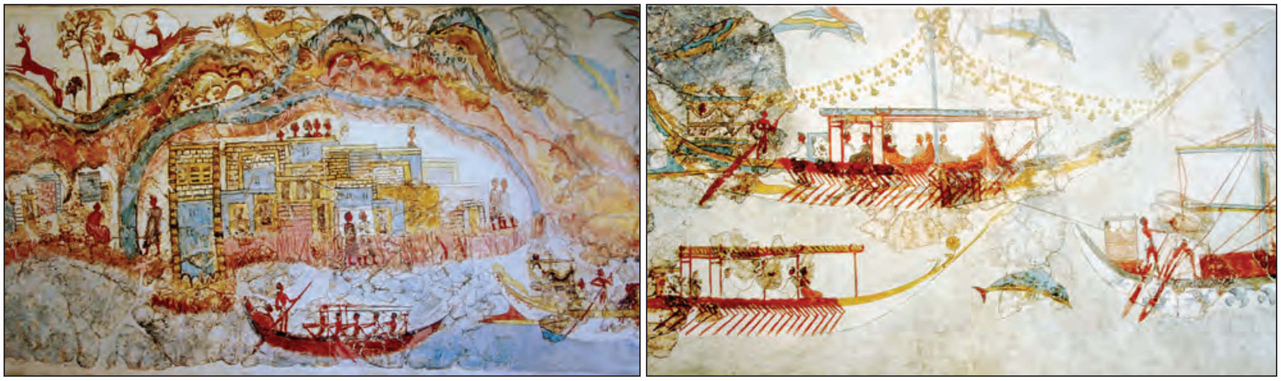
The Indo-Europeans, however, did not completely replace the original inhabitants, and it was through the merging of these two groups—one being of more Nordic appearance and the other a smaller and "darker" appearance—that the population of Classical Greece was composed. Over time, the two groups became increasingly intermingled.

Genetically speaking, this had an effect on the phenotype of the population in the following ways: (1) brown eyes and dark hair, the most common traits of the pre-Indo-European population, remained dominant because of their numerical superiority, and (2) blue eyes and blond or lighter-colored hair, while becoming more prevalent than before, remained a minority, usually being restrict-

LINEAR A AND B SCRIPTS, CIRCA 1850 BC

Two tablets contain Linear A and Linear B scripts. Linear A (above) is "Old European" and has never been deciphered, while Linear B (below), dating from the time of the Mycenaean invasion, was deciphered in the mid-20th century.

EARLY AEGEAN SHIPS CIRCA 1700 BC



A mural discovered at the Akrotiri settlement on Santorini, dating from around 1700 BC, provides insight into the advanced technological levels of the early Aegean civilization, with vessels designed for both short and long-distance passenger and cargo transportation.

ed to the leadership. Additionally, this leadership, apart from being more Nordic in appearance, also tended to have dolichocephalic, or "long" skulls.

A 2017 DNA study on ancient remains from Mycenaean settlements confirmed the Indo-European influence, based on the limited samples available. It showed that the population of that time had up to 14 percent DNA from "northern ancestors who came from Eastern Europe or Siberia." This is proof of a "wave of people from the Eurasian steppe [who] came to mainland Greece via Eastern Europe or Armenia but didn't reach Crete."[1]

Mycenaeans Brought Significant Technological Advances

The Mycenaeans are known for their major settlements, the best known of which is the citadel of Mycenae on the Peloponnesian Peninsula. This walled city, built on a hill just under 1000 feet (300 meters) above sea level and protected by a ring of mountains, was situated close to the Aegean shoreline. It grew to hold a population of at least 30,000. The site, which can still be visited today, contains impressive buildings, nine large stone tholos tombs, fortification walls, and the well-preserved "Lion Gate" entrance (a feature that allowed the precise identification of the site based on ancient texts).

Legendary King Agamemnon Described as Blond

The city of Mycenae features in Homer's *Iliad* as the capital of the legendary King Agamemnon. Although there is no concrete evidence that Agamemnon actually existed, works of the time describe him as "blond, large, and powerful."[2] Even if fanciful, this description implies that the ancient writers were aware of a new subracial strain appearing in the region. It is not only the legendary Agamemnon who was a Mycenaean: many other mythical characters now commonly associated with "Classical Greece," such as Menelaus, Achilles, and Odysseus, were also Mycenaeans or first emerged as characters during the Mycenaean period. They would later become associated with Classical Greece because they were frequently portrayed in classical Greek art—an indication of the high esteem in which the later Greeks held the Mycenaeans and their contribution to Greek culture.

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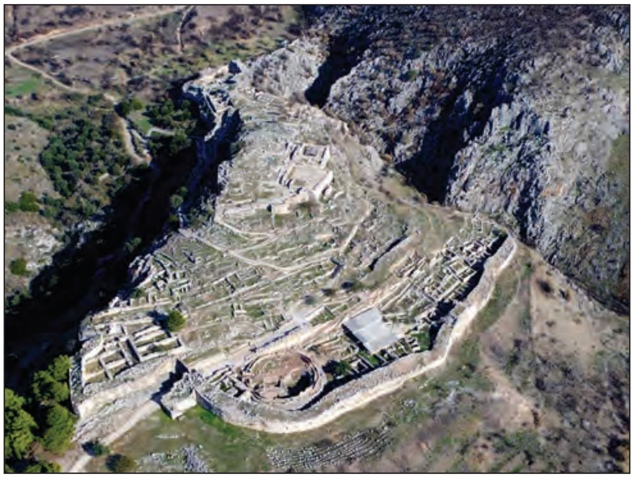
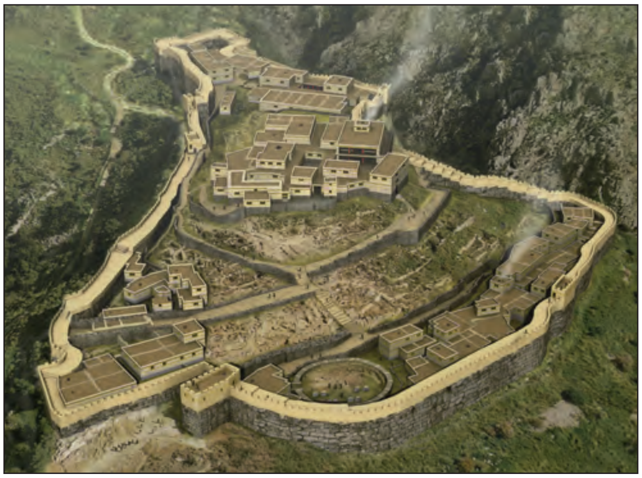
[1] "Genetic origins of the Minoans and Mycenaeans," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Nature,* volume 548, pages 214–218 (2017). That same study was able to extract mtDNA haplogroups from 19 ancient remains. Of the 19, seven were mtDNA Haplogroup U, the most common in Europe in the present day, and all of the others are found at varying levels from Europe to the Middle East and North Africa, consistent with a wide spread of ancient populations. Y-Chromosomes could only be extracted from 5 of the samples, with one being from the now extinct G haplogroup (but formerly widely distributed in eastern and southern Europe), and the rest being subclades of the J2a Haplogroup, which is today concentrated in the Middle East. Of the samples which returned usable results, a minority had the genes for blue eyes, and the majority had the genes for brown eyes.

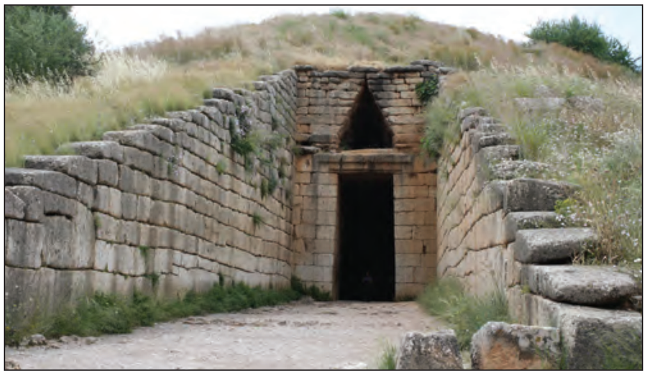
[2] *Daretis Phrygii de excidio Troiae historia*, a work in Latin from the Greek original by Dares Phrygius, who was, according to Homer, a priest in Tory who wrote an account of the fall of his city. The quote is from the English translation, *The Trojan War. The Chronicles of Dictys of Crete and Dares the Phrygian,* paragraph 13, Translated by R. M. Frazer (Jr.), Indiana University Press. 1966.

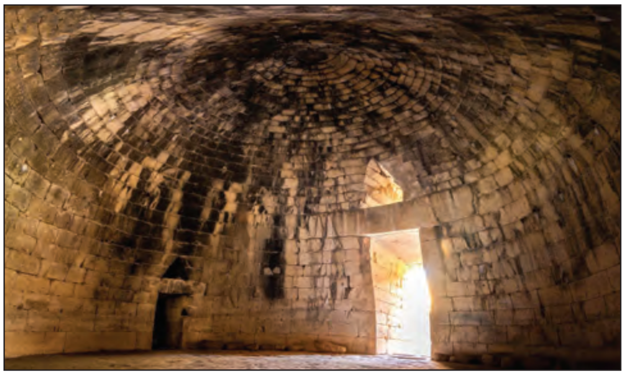
MYCENAE—FIRST GREAT GREEK CITY-STATE 1900 BC



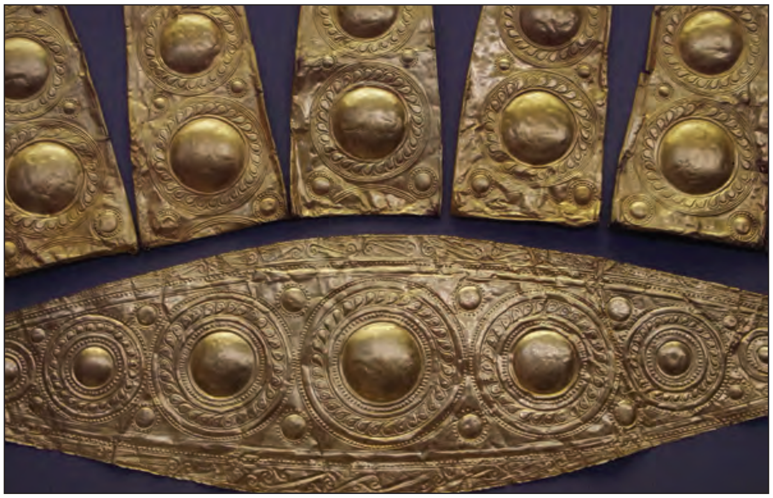


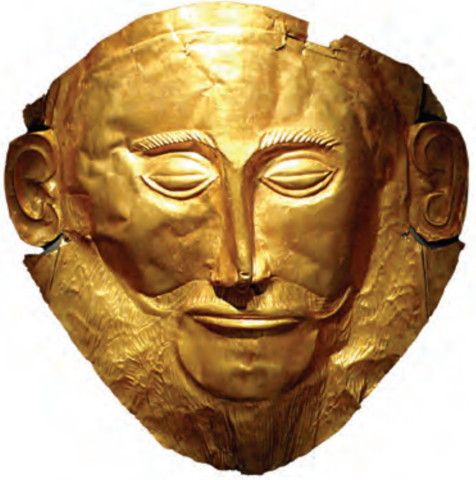
Above left is the citadel of Mycenae, situated on the Peloponnesian peninsula, as it appears today, and above right, reconstructed to display what it looked like at its zenith.





In the hills surrounding the citadel of Mycenae, several tholos tombs were discovered. These are domed underground structures used as burial places for kings or nobles. Inside the citadel, two grave circles were found, each consisting of deep rectangular shafts above stone-walled burial chambers. The treasures contained within these chambers are breathtaking.





Above left: A detail from a gold funeral diadem from Shaft Grave III, "Grave of the Women", Grave Circle A, Mycenae, dating from 1600–1500 BC. Above right: A gold funeral mask found in Grave Circle A, Mycenae, circa 1600 BC. This gold sheet mask would be wrapped around the deceased's face, with string looped through small holes at the base of the ears. (National Archaeological Museum, Athens).

Mycenaeans Expanded and Dominated Greece and Southern Islands

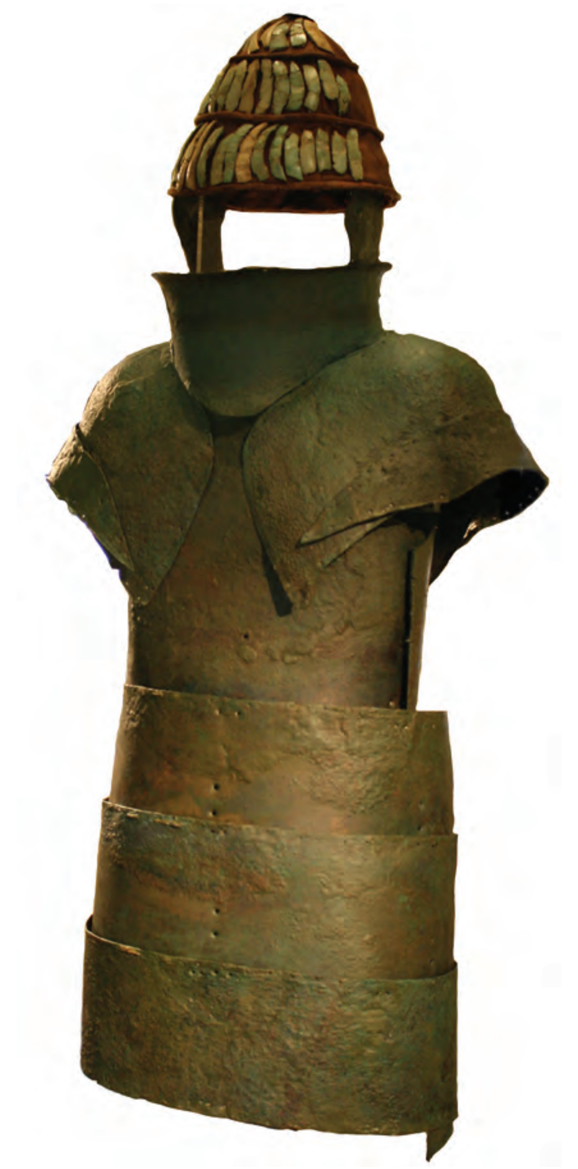
Once firmly established, the Mycenaeans pursued an aggressive expansionist policy and established a number of new settlements on the Greek mainland. Major Mycenaean centers from this period include many settlements that would later become famous in their own right—albeit under different rulers—including Argos, Sparta, and even Athens. Over time, they and their descendants expanded beyond the Greek mainland and established settlements in Crete and Knossos, absorbing but ultimately displacing the Old European civilizations on those islands by around 1500 BC.

Dorian Invasion Marked the End of the Mycenaean Era

Around 1200 BC, the major Mycenaean settlements had almost all fallen into ruin, and within a century of that date, even the knowledge of the Linear B script had been lost to the inhabitants of Greece. Consequently, the next 200 years of Greek history have been—exaggeratedly—labeled the "Greek Dark Ages," even though they were probably not as dark as once thought. Like all civilizational collapses, the disappearance of the Mycenaean civilization is linked to the arrival and dominance of newcomers—in this case, an Indo-European invasion known as the "Dorians."

As there is no specific written record of the Dorian invasion, many historians have questioned the occurrence of this invasion. However, it is widely agreed that there was a significant cultural shift in Greece during the period when Dorian culture first appeared on the Peloponnesian Peninsula. Given the iron law of history—that a changing population changes the culture of a region—the disappearance of the Mycenaeans alone should serve as evidence of a wave of newcomers.

MYCENAEAN ARMOR ,1500 BC



A bronze suit of armor from the Mycenaean cemetery at Dendra, central Greece, circa 1500 BC. (Nafplio Archaeological Museum).

Additional factors underscore the presence of a disruptive wave of newcomers: archaeological evidence shows that several Mycenaean settlements were physically destroyed between 1200 and 1100 BC, and the great walls of the citadel of Mycenae were built during this period—an indication that at last, after nearly 700 years, they found the need to build a defensive ring around the city. The introduction of a new culture—widely referred to as "Dorian" during the same time period—also indicates the arrival of newcomers. Where exactly these newcomers came from is not clear. Some clues, such as being called "Makednoi"[3] (meaning "Macedonian" in Ancient Greek), suggest a possible geographic origin in the northern part of the Balkans where Macedonian settlements were established.

Another theory suggests that the Dorians might have been part of the "Sea Peoples," a Viking-like

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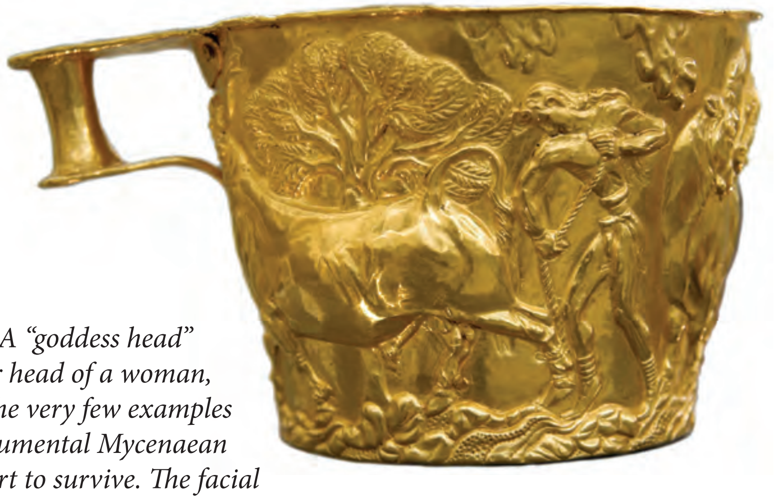
[3] "The Dorian Invasion reviewed in the light of some New Evidence," Stanley Casson, *The Antiquaries* journal, p. 201, Society of Antiquaries of London, 1921.

MYCENAEAN ART REVEALS HOW THEY PORTRAYED THEMSELVES



Right: A gold Mycenaean cup from the Vapheio tholos tomb, Lakonia, circa 1500 BC. It is particularly valuable because of its extremely lifelike depictions of Mycenaean athletes capturing bulls. (National Archaeological Museum, Athens).

Left: A "goddess head" plaster head of a woman, one of the very few examples of monumental Mycenaean plaster art to survive. The facial features, with their severe expression, are accentuated by touches of bright red and black paint, while dotted rosettes brighten up the cheeks and skin. The hair falls in small curls along the forehead under a polos (cylindrical cup). From the area of the Cult center on the acropolis at Mycenae. 1300 BC. (National Archaeological Museum, Athens.)

Indo-European tribe that marauded through the eastern Mediterranean region during that time, and whose raids into Egypt caused great consternation in that land. These events are contemporaneous with the end of the Mycenaean culture.

Regardless of their exact origin, the Dorians eventually became one of the four major groups into which the Classical Greeks divided themselves, alongside the Aeolians, Achaeans, and Ionians. They were distinguished by their Doric Greek dialect and unique social and historical traditions.

Herodotus, often considered the "father of history," writing in the 5th century BC, reported that the Dorians were "foreign"[4] to the Peloponnese, while the second-century AD writer Pausanias, speaking generally of the Dorian invasion, says that it "threw the whole of the Peloponnese except Arcadia, into confusion."[5] The Dorians established their capital at Sparta, a city which, along with the city of Athens, was to become synonymous with the history of Classical Greece.

Hellenic Age—Height of Greek Civilization

The Hellenic Age, spanning from 800 to 400 BC, represents the height of classical Greek civilization. The term "Hellenic" comes from the ancient Greek word "Hellas" (Ελλάς), which means "Greek" and is still used to refer to Greece.

After the disappearance of the Mycenaean culture, efforts to rebuild the high culture of that age may have seemed slow to start, but this perception could be due to an incomplete archaeological record.

It was only in the 8th century BC that the first evidence of the reintroduction of writing emerges. Archaic Greek writing, based on a Phoenician system, was far more complex than Phoenician script and eventually evolved into the form of writing that is still used in modern Greek. Archaic Greek writing spread to Italy, where it was adopted by the Etruscans and later influenced the development of Latin and other European languages.

City States Expand Beyond Greece's Borders

During the 8th century BC, numerous independent "city-states" emerged on the Greek mainland, each with its own unique characteristics and outlooks.

Despite their differences, many of these city-states had a common desire to expand beyond their borders, facilitated by their advanced navies. As a result, more than 500 Greek colonies were established on the coastlines of Spain, France, Italy, the

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[4] *Histories*, Herodotus, Book VIII, para. 73.

[5] *Description of Greece*, or *Hellados Periegesis*, by Pausanias.

Adriatic, the Black Sea, Anatolia (present-day Turkey), and North Africa. By 500 BC, it is estimated that up to 60,000 Greeks lived outside of Greece. However, not all of these colonies retained their Greek character, as some were assimilated by local populations and became "Greek in name only."

This expansion and the establishment of Greek colonies had a significant impact on the course of history, particularly in the Middle East.

Magna Graecia—Colonies in Italy and Sicily

The Greek colonies in southern Italy and Sicily are perhaps the best known such outposts, and this region became known as "Greater Greece" (Magna Graecia).

Some of the more important colonies in Italy and Sicily included Cumae (the first colony, founded circa 740 BC); Naxos (circa 734 BC); Sybaris (circa 720 BC); Croton (circa 710 BC); Tarentum (circa 706 BC); Rhegium (circa 720 BC); Elea (circa 540 BC); Thurri (circa 443 BC); Heraclea (circa 433 BC); Syracuse (circa 733 BC); Gela (circa 688 BC); Selinous (circa 630 BC); Himera (circa 630 BC); and Akragas (circa 580 BC).

These colonies, founded by an assortment of city-states independently of each other, became the most "Greek" of all the foreign ventures and were characterized by the building of temples and other structures that are instantly recognizable as "Classical Grecian" in style. In this way, the well-preserved Greek temples at Paestum (Greek name *Poseidonia*) and at the "Valley of the Temples" near the Sicilian town of Agrigento are, incongruously, among the best-preserved buildings from that time.

Other famous cities in Southern Italy and Sicily founded by Greek colonists included Neapolis (today known as Naples), Syrakousai (today called Syracuse), Akragas (today called Agrigento), Tarentum, and Bari.

Greek Colonies in the Black Sea and Ionia

The Greek colonies to the east spread as far as the Black Sea, including what the Greeks called Taurica (after the name of the local inhabitants), now called Crimea; and all along the Anatolian coast (in the present-day Republic of Turkey). That region, known then as Ionia, became an Athenian Greek stronghold and a firm ally of the latter city-state.

Numerous important Greek cities were established in both regions, but the most famous ones in history were concentrated along the Ionian coast: these included Miletus (originally a Mycenaean city); Ephesus (later to win fame because of the exploits of the Christian missionary Paul of Tarsus); Smyrna (today the Turkish city of İzmir); and Halicarnassus (today included in the Turkish city of Bodrum).

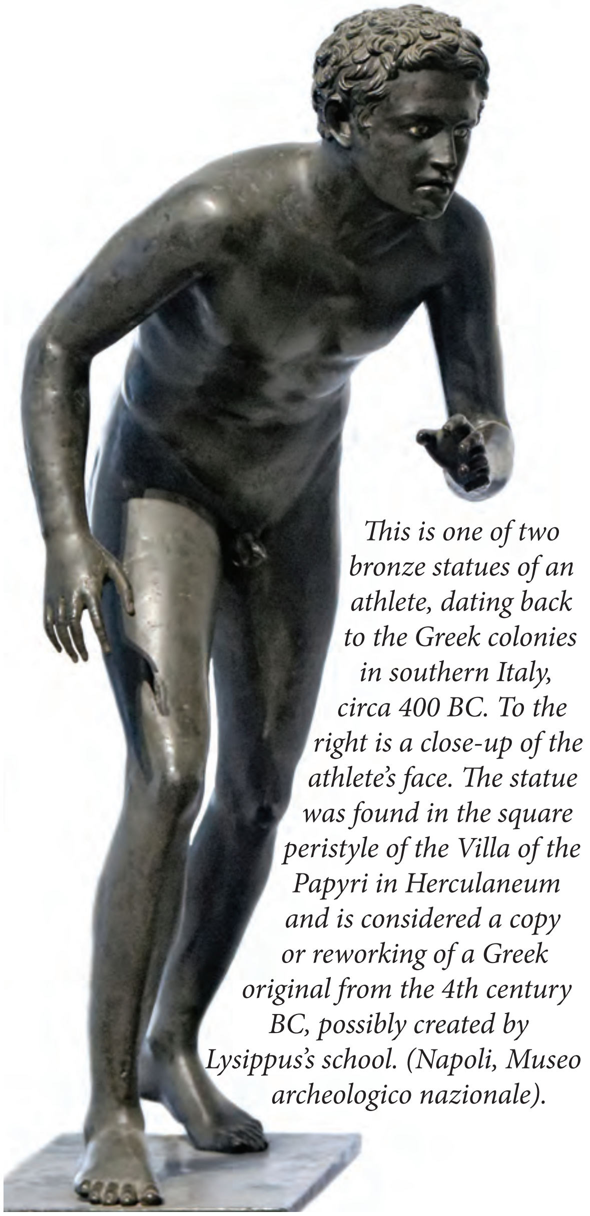
Halicarnassus became world-famous for its Tomb of Mausolus (350 BC), which was the longest surviving of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

GREEK TEMPLES AND BUILDINGS IN ITALY, CIRCA 700–500 BC

The Temple of Concord in Agrigento, Valley of the Temples, Sicily, was built by Greek colonists during the time of the great expansion of Greek culture across the Mediterranean.

The Greek temples at Paestum, southern Italy, dating from around 550 BC, are well-preserved examples of Classical Greek architecture and are better preserved than most archaeological sites in Greece.

GREEK ATHLETE, MAGNA GRAECIA, 4TH CENTURY BC



This is one of two bronze statues of an athlete, dating back to the Greek colonies in southern Italy, circa 400 BC. To the right is a close-up of the athlete's face. The statue was found in the square peristyle of the Villa of the Papyri in Herculaneum and is considered a copy or reworking of a Greek original from the 4th century BC, possibly created by Lysippus's school. (Napoli, Museo archeologico nazionale).

In circa 660 BC, Greek settlers from Megara founded a new city on the western side of the Bosporus Straits and called it Byzantium. This city would later, under Roman rule, be renamed Constantinople and is today called Istanbul.

In this way, much of the eastern and southern coast of present-day Turkey was colonized by Greek settlers. Twelve of these colonies would band together and form what became known as the "Ionian League" or the "Panionic League," and ally themselves with Athens during the intermittent wars of the time.

Greek Colonies in North Africa

Greek colonies were also established in North Africa, with most concentrated in the present-day eastern region of Libya, known as Cyrenaica. The most important of these was the city of Cyrene, which gave its name to the region of Cyrenaica, a place name that has survived to the present day. Founded circa 631 BC, Cyrene was served by its port city of Apollonia, another important settlement that later became one of the most important cities of Roman-ruled North Africa.

Another important Greek colony in Cyrenaica was the port of Antipyrgus, which is today known under the name of Tobruk. The name "Antipyrgus" comes from the similarly named place in Crete, Pygros, with the idea that "anti-Pygrus" was "across [the way] from Pygros."

Other Greek settlements of note in this region included Euesperides (now known as Benghazi), Barca (now called Barce), and Taucheira (now called Tocra). There was only one Greek colony in Egypt at that time, that of Naukratis, which had been founded in central Egypt on the banks of the Nile, by permission granted by the then Assyrian ruler of Egypt, Psammetichus I, around the year 650 BC.

Slavery: The Racial Effect of Colonization

The Greek colonial expansion was primarily driven by the desire for commerce and trade, but it had an important side effect: through the trade in slaves, people from all over the Mediterranean were brought in, including from regions that had long since ceased to be majority white, such as inner Anatolia, North Africa (Libya), Egypt, and even from Nubia (Ethiopia) and in many cases, even further south.

The presence of large numbers of slaves would later play an important role in the decline of Classical Greece.

Greek States—Oligarchy versus Democracy

Knowledge of the nature of the city-state is crucial to understanding the history of classical Greece. Far from being a united people, the Greeks established themselves in walled, fortified, and quite often self-sustaining cities, each fiercely independent and warring with each other at what seems to be the slightest provocation.

By 750 BC, two distinct ideologies had formed among the Greek city-states. The first was an oligarchy—rule by an educated elite. The second was a limited form of democracy—rule by the citizens. The city of Sparta was the leading exponent of the oligarchic system, while the city of Athens was the leading exponent of the democratic system.

Athens: The Center of Hellenic Greece

Although originally founded by the Mycenaeans, the city of Athens, like many other Mycenaean centers, went into decline at the time of the Dorian invasions and only revived around a century later. It was only by around the 6th century BC that the city rose to prominence and became the most famous city in Greece and the center of the Hellenic world.

Perhaps the most important political innovation developed in Athens was the concept of democracy, which was instated by the reforms promoted by the politician Cleisthenes in 508 BC.

His concept of democracy was not, however, the understanding given to it in the present day and consisted only of organizing citizens into ten groups based on where they lived, rather than on their wealth, as had previously been the case. There

TEMPLE OF ARTEMIS, EPHESUS, 550 BC

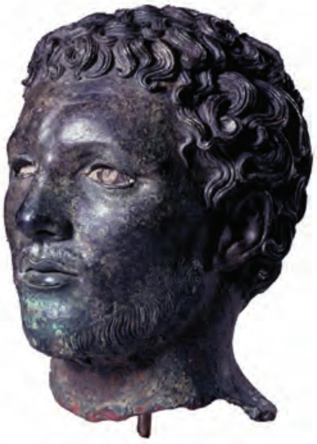
This is a reconstruction of the Temple of Artemis, located in the Greek colony of Ephesus (today on the western coast of Turkey). It was one of the original Seven Wonders of the World. Originally built in 550 BC, it stood 40 feet (13 meters) high, 377 feet (115 meters) long, and 151 feet (46 meters) wide. It was destroyed by fire 200 years after its construction, and its third iteration lasted nearly 600 years until 262 AD when it was finally razed by marauding Goths. Little remains of it today, but the structure was so well described that accurate reconstructions, such as this version, are possible.

TOMB OF MAUSOLUS, HALICARNASSUS, 350 BC

The tomb of Mausolus, a king of one of the Ionian states (today located on the coast of Turkey), was built circa 350 BC. It stood 148 feet (45 meters) high and was adorned on all sides with over 400 sculptures. It stood for over 1000 years until it was destroyed by earthquakes in 1500 AD. The tomb was so famous that it gave its name to the term "mausoleum."

GREEK COLONIES IN NORTH AFRICA: CYRENE (LIBYA) AND NAUKRATIS (EGYPT)

The Temple of Zeus at Cyrene in present-day Libya. One of the major centers of the Greek religion in North Africa, the temple was destroyed by Jews during the Jewish Revolt of 115 AD, and then rebuilt by the Romans. It was destroyed by an earthquake 250 years later and abandoned.



A bronze bust found at the site of the Temple of Apollo in Cyrene, circa 300 BC. (British Museum, London).

was, therefore, no idea of extending citizenship or the vote to anyone extra.

At the same time, Athens had grown significantly in economic and military power and was, with a well-organized and large naval fleet, able to come to the aid of the Greek colonies in Ionia that had been attacked by the then mixed-race Persian Empire. This intervention led to the Greco-Persian Wars as detailed below.

Periclean Golden Age—Vote Based on Blood

From the years 460–429 BC, Athens and many Grecian cities went through what is now known as its Golden Age. Athens was under the leadership of an immensely popular leader named Pericles, who, although a democrat (in the limited Athenian sense of the word), was certainly not under any illusion about the potential threat to his society posed by the influx of outsiders.

In 451 BC, Pericles enacted a law limiting Athenian citizenship to biological descent—only those born of an Athenian mother and an Athenian father could be citizens. In other words, voting rights were granted on the basis of blood alone. These measures ultimately failed because of the vast numbers of foreign slaves that were present in Athens at that time.

It was during Pericles' time that Athens reached the cultural heights for which it is remembered today. Among his more famous achievements was the construction of the Parthenon on the Acropolis in Athens, built from 447–432 BC and dedicated to that city's patron goddess, Athena Parthenos.

The statue of Athena in the Parthenon, as well as a huge bronze called the Athena Promachos, which stood outside the Parthenon on the Acropolis, was created by the sculptor Phidias (circa 480–430 BC). These works became the most famous of all statues in Classical Greece, and their style has been widely copied throughout the ages, helping give rise to the term "classical" as an art form.

Athens Becomes Cultural Center of Greece

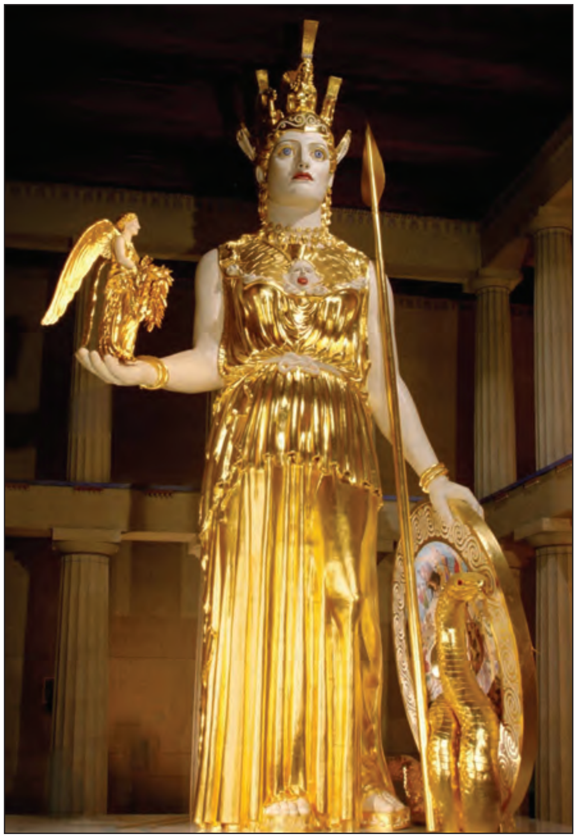
It was also during this period that Athens became the cultural center for much of Greece, with famous playwrights, historians, physicians, and philosophers such as Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Herodotus, Thucydides, Hippocrates, Plato, and Socrates, all being active at this time.

In 387 BC, Plato established his famous school, "The Academy," in Athens.

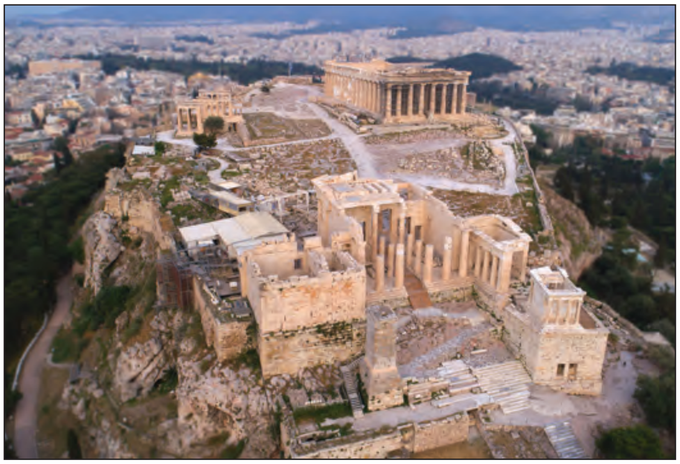
One of Plato's foremost pupils, Aristotle, studied there for twenty years before he, in turn, founded his own school in Athens, the "Lyceum," in 334 BC. This latter school was established at the newly-built temple dedicated to Apollo Lyceus ("Apollo the wolf-god"). Both schools remained open until they were destroyed during the Roman assault on Athens in 86 BC.

Athens also became involved in two major wars: one with Persia (490–480 BC), and the Peloponnesian War of 431 BC, the details of which are

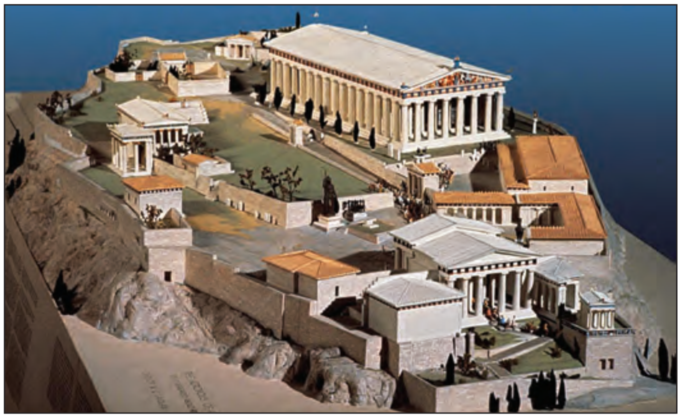
THE PARTHENON ON THE ACROPOLIS, ATHENS 438 BC

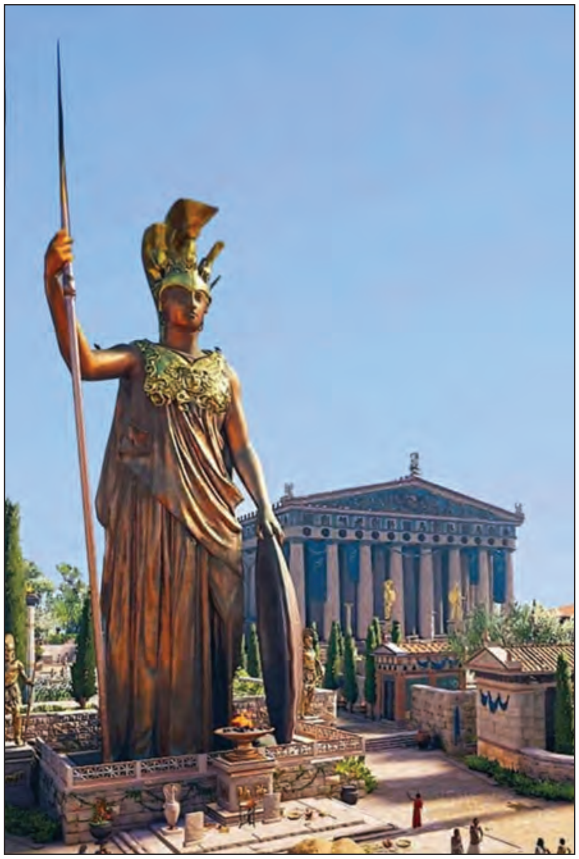


The Parthenon on the Acropolis in Athens was built from 447–438 BC to commemorate the Greek victory over the Persian king Xerxes I. It replaced an earlier Parthenon which had been destroyed by Persians.



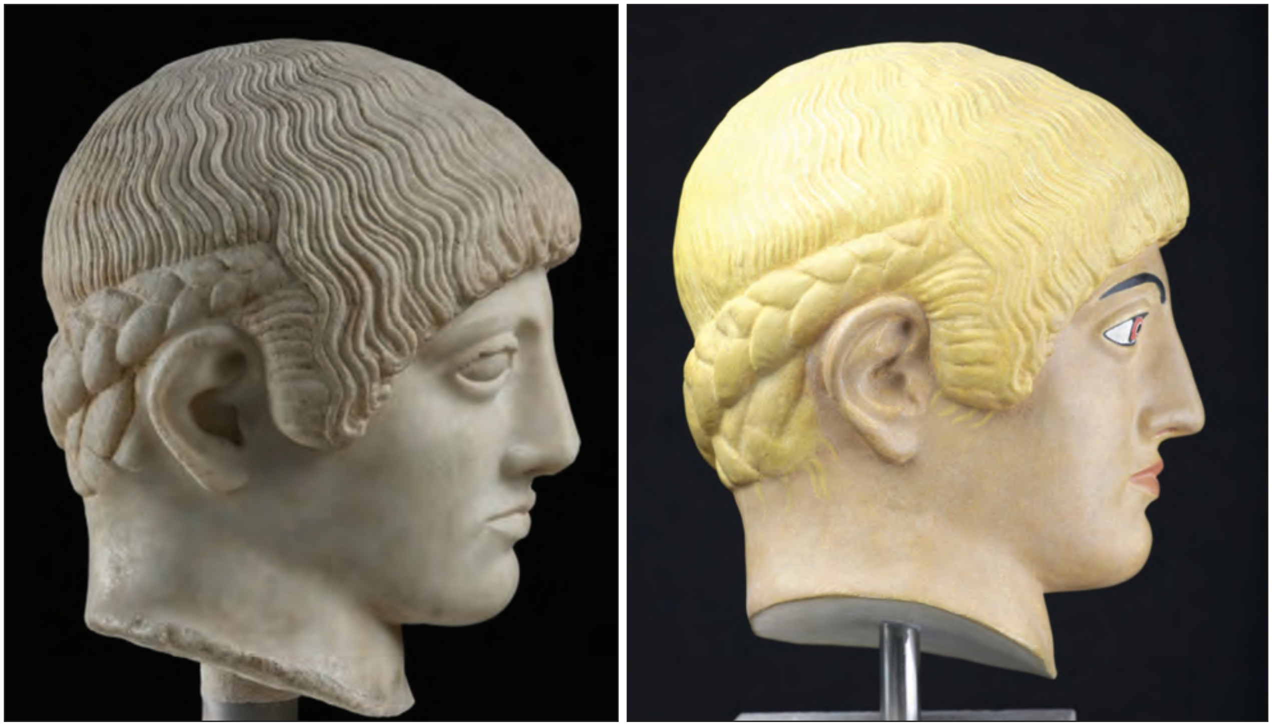
Above: The Acropolis as it is today.





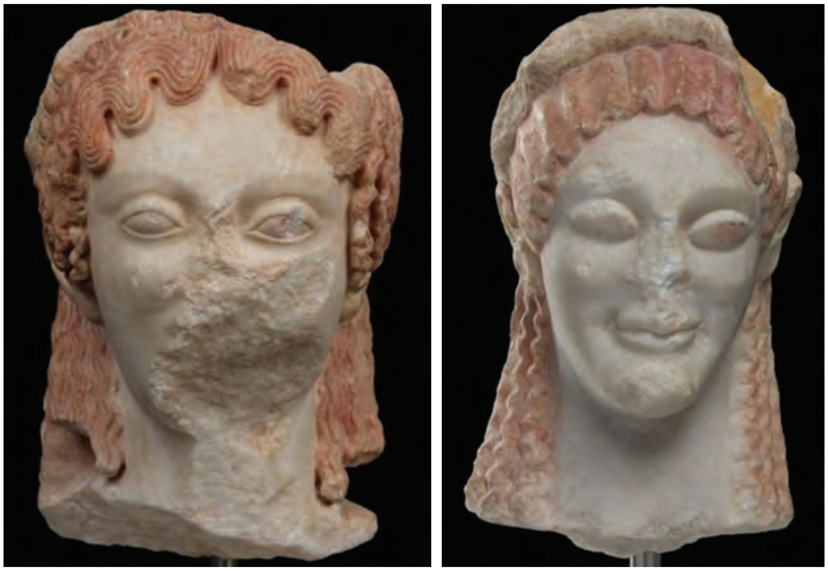
Above: The Acropolis, as it appeared during the city's golden age, was the site where Pericles, Athens' greatest ruler, and Phidias, her most distinguished architect, elevated the city to aesthetic heights that remain unsurpassed to this day. When the Romans occupied Greece—long after its collapse—they marveled at the sheer splendor of Athens and adopted much of their architecture and artistic style directly from classical Greece.
Above left: A depiction of the statue of Athena, the goddess of war, and the interior of the Parthenon as they originally appeared. The interior was gilded and housed a massive statue—one of the wonders of Periclean Greece. The reconstruction is based on original Greek descriptions.
To the left: Another colossal statue of Athena, which stood outside the Parthenon, is depicted in this reconstruction based on original descriptions. The sculptor in both instances was the renowned Phidias, who also created the statue of Zeus at Olympia.

"BLONDE BOY" BUST, ACROPOLIS, ATHENS, 480 BC

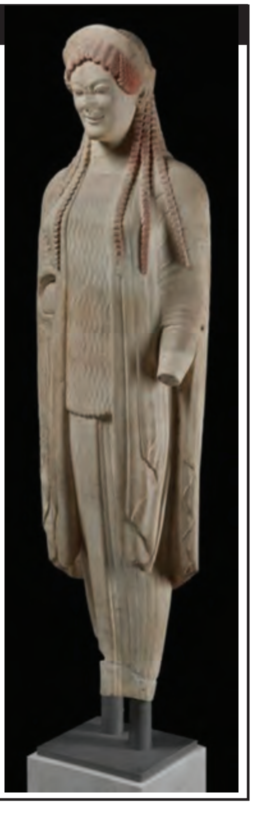


Above left: This exquisitely carved bust, dated to 480 BC, was discovered in 1887 during archaeological excavations on the Acropolis. Its official modern-day name, the "Blonde Boy," originates from the residue of golden-yellow paint found on its hair. Alongside it is a reconstruction of the bust's original coloring, based on residue analysis of the original conducted by experts at the Staatliche Antikensammlungen in Munich (original in the Acropolis Museum, Athens, Greece).

KORE STATUES, ATHENS ACROPOLIS, 500 BC

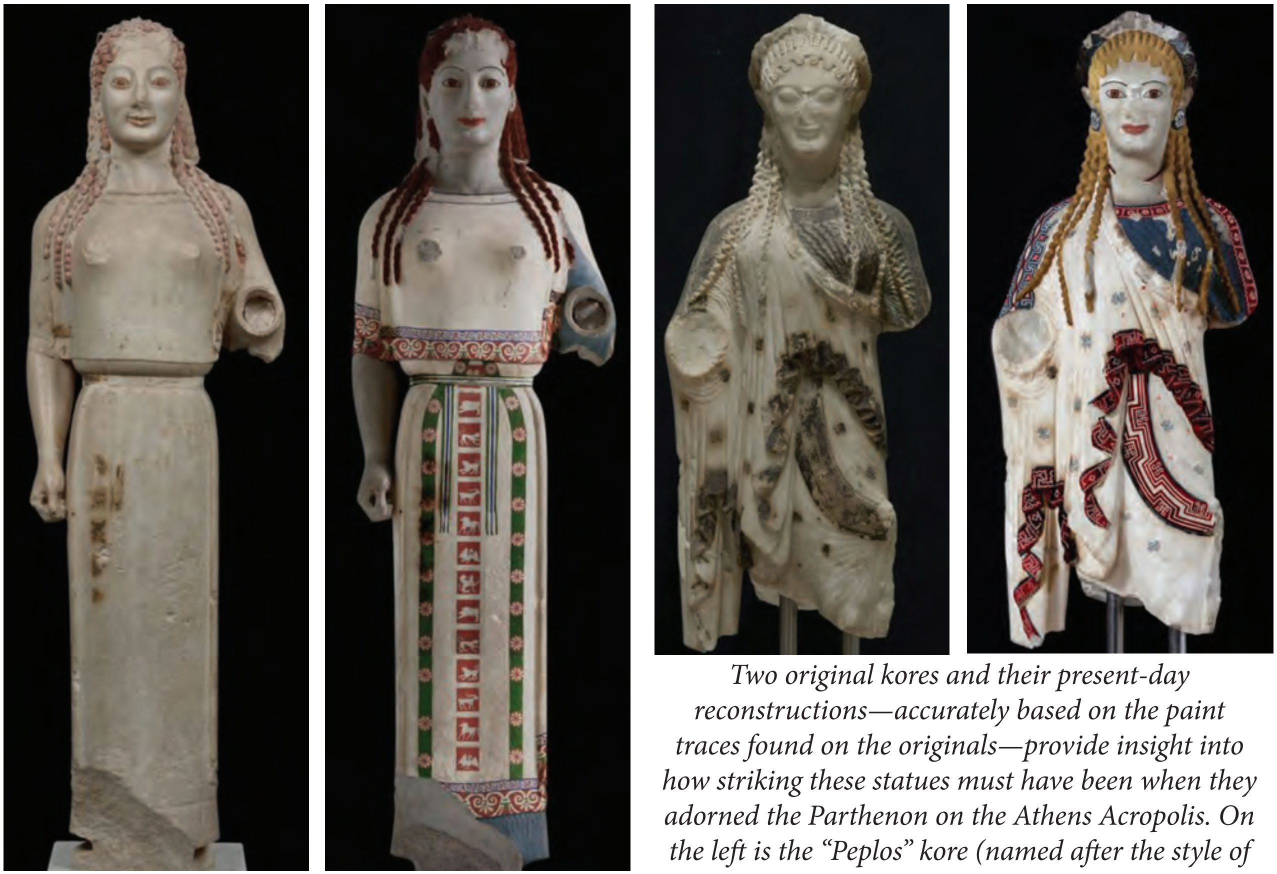


Two heads from Kore statues were discovered on the Acropolis. A Kore statue (Greek for "maiden") is the term used to refer to these free-standing ancient Greek sculptures of women, which likely adorned altars. These pieces are dated between 490 and 510 BC (Acropolis Museum, Athens).



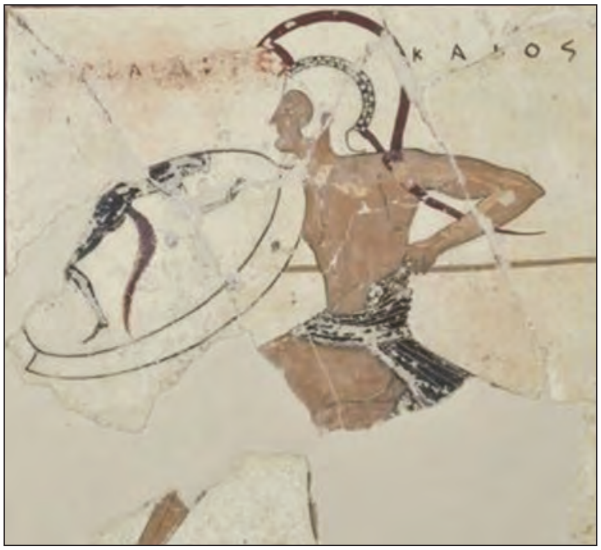
Right: A nearly full-length kore discovered in 1886 in the northern walls of the Acropolis. Dated between 490 and 510 BC, traces of paint on the statue suggest that it was decorated with intricate red, blue, and green motifs, and her hair was painted red. (Acropolis Museum, Athens).

ATHENS KORE RECONSTRUCTIONS REVEAL ANCIENT BEAUTY, CIRCA 530 BC



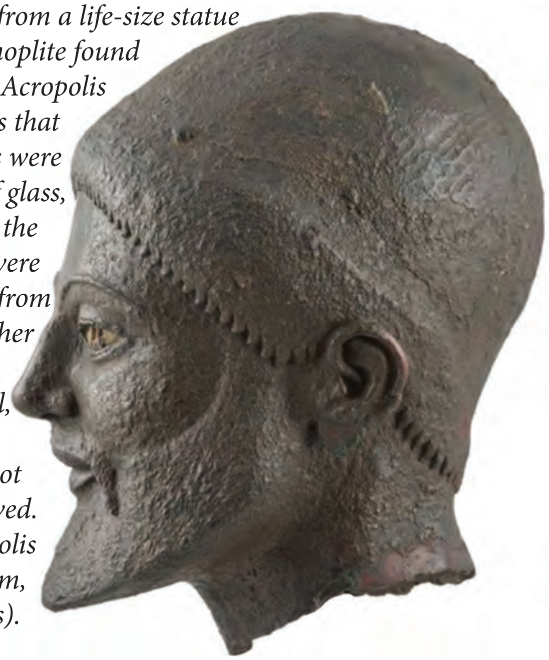
Two original kores and their present-day reconstructions—accurately based on the paint traces found on the originals—provide insight into how striking these statues must have been when they adorned the Parthenon on the Athens Acropolis. On the left is the "Peplos" kore (named after the style of garment in which it is dressed) and its reconstruction, complete with red hair. On the right is the "Chios" kore (so named because it resembles work produced on the island of Chios) and its reconstruction, complete with blond hair. (Originals in the Acropolis Museum, Athens).

ATHENIAN SOLDIER, THE "HANDSOME" 490 BC



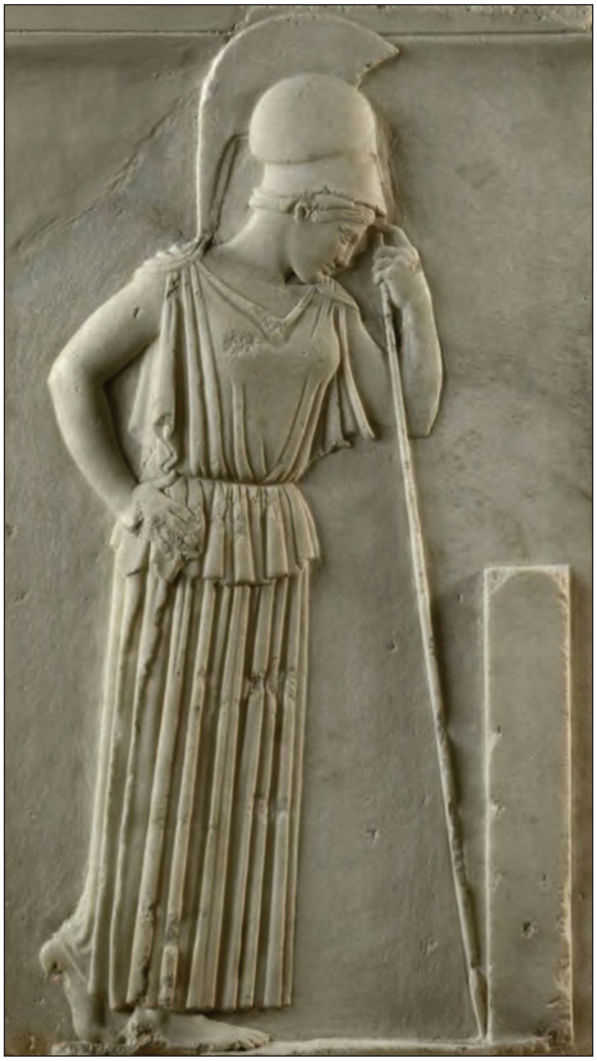
A plaque discovered on the Acropolis depicts a young hoplite wearing an Attic helmet. Above his head is an inscription that reads "Glaukytes is handsome." (Acropolis Museum, Athens).

ATHENIAN HOPLITE BUST, 470 BC



A bust from a life-size statue of a hoplite found on the Acropolis reveals that the eyes were made of glass, while the irises were created from some other inlaid material, which has not survived. (Acropolis Museum, Athens).

THE PENSIVE ATHENA, 460 BC



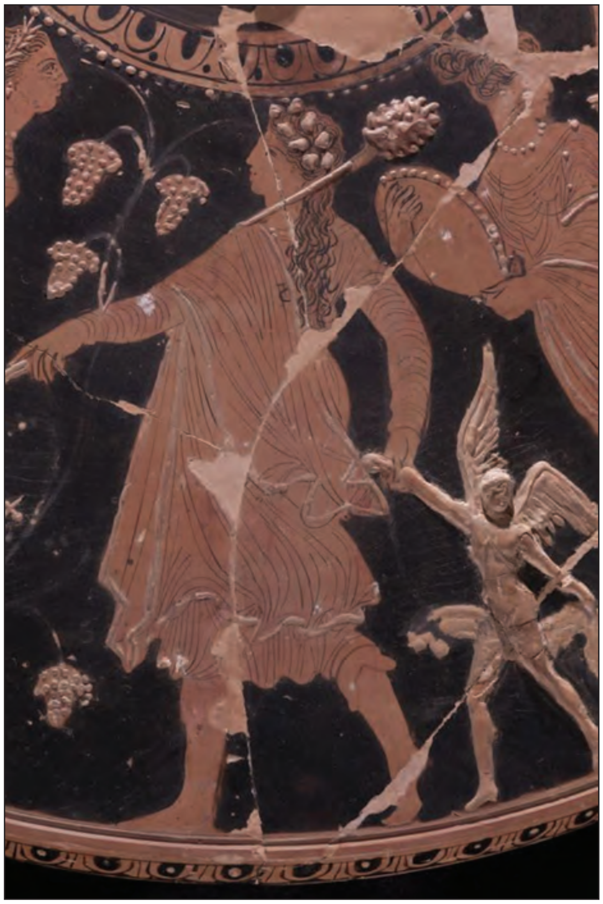
Perhaps one of the most beautiful works of art yet found on the Acropolis, the so-called "Pensive Athena" carving, has been the subject of endless speculation as to its use. Although this relief is now completely white, spectrographic analysis has shown that its background in ancient times was painted blue. (Acropolis Museum, Athens).

recounted below. By 300 BC, Athens had been exhausted by the ongoing wars, and, as the impact of centuries of foreign arrivals slowly changed the face of the city, it began to lose its prominence. It finally fell to the Roman invasion of 88 BC, and then entered a new era, divorced from its days of glory as the capital city of Classical Greece.

Olympia: Origin of Olympic Games

The city of Olympia, located east of the Peloponnesian Peninsula, was the center of the worship of the god Zeus during Mycenaean times, and the sanctuary to this chief god became a highly prized status symbol to all the Greek city-states. Eventually, by the end of the 8th century BC, the two powerful cities of Elis and Pisa went to war with each other over control of the site. Elis won the conflict and took over sole control of the site.

LEKANIS LID WITH FIGURES, 330 BC



The lid of a pot, called a lekanis (where the lid doubled up as a serving plate), was decorated with a scene related to the worship of Dionysus and was found in 1956 on the south slope of the Acropolis. Dated from around 330 BC. (Acropolis Museum, Athens, Greece).

Almost immediately, the Elisians started to organize athletic events in honor of Zeus, to which all the Greek city-states were invited to send teams. For that purpose, any ongoing war or dispute between the city-states was suspended for the duration of the games.

The first games were reputedly held in the year 776 BC, and for that reason, many historians have arbitrarily adopted that date as the start of the Classical Grecian or Hellenic period. The games at

Olympia went on to take the name of the venue and are the inspiration for the Olympic Games to the present day.

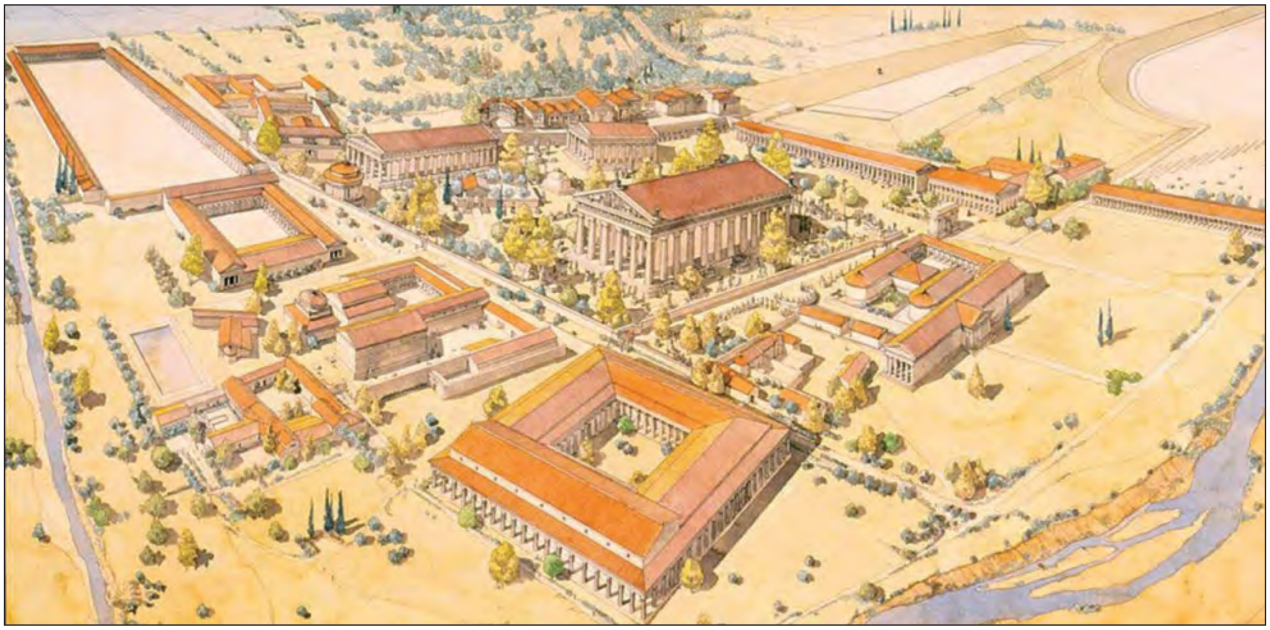
The city of Olympia grew over the next few centuries into a large complex containing temples and other buildings, the most impressive of which was the 5th-century BC Temple of Zeus, which also contained a giant statue of the god constructed by the famous sculptor Phidias. This statue was of such dimensions and appearance that it was classed as one of the Seven Wonders of the World.

Olympia also boasted, naturally, its own precisely measured athletics track, which was used for contests to find the fastest man alive, and several other spectacular buildings such as the Phiu field, where the games were held. Other famous buildings at the site included the 4th century BC Philippeion, a sanctuary honoring Philip II of Macedonia and his son Alexander (soon to be known as "the Great"); and the 330 BC Leonidaion, a large accommodation building for visiting athletes. After many centuries, which saw the site wracked by earthquakes and rebuilt by the Roman occupiers of Greece, the complex of Olympia—including

APOLLO LOOKS OUT OVER OLYMPIA

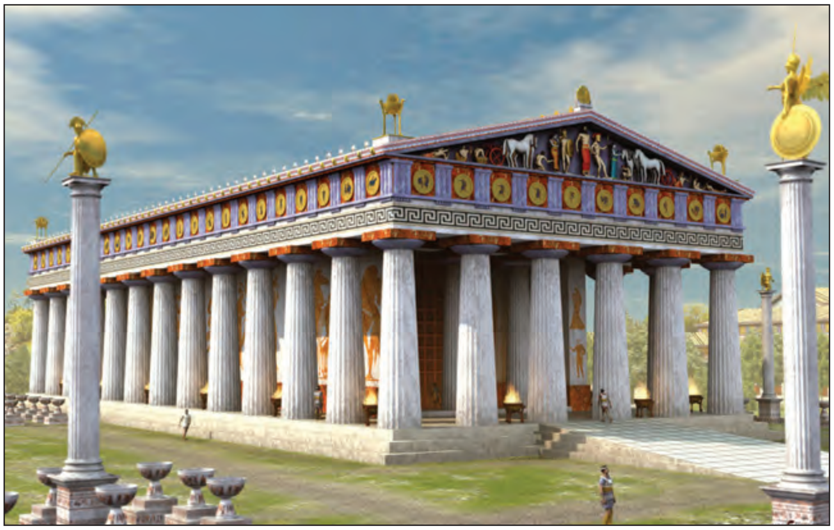
The god Apollo, as on the east pediment of the Temple of Zeus, Olympia. Recovered from the ruins of the temple, and on display at the Archaeological Museum of Olympia.

OLYMPIA, SITE OF THE ORIGINAL OLYMPIC GAMES, AT ITS GREATEST

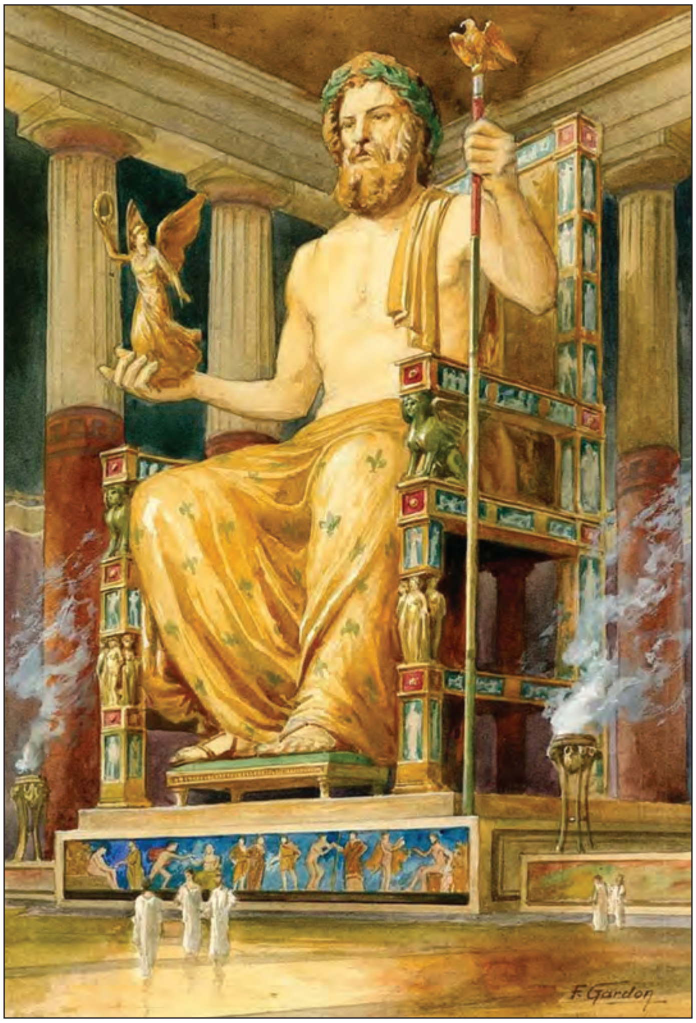


Above is a reconstruction of the site of Olympia, located on the eastern seaboard of the Peloponnesian Peninsula. The Temple of Zeus can be seen in the center, surrounded by other temples and administrative buildings. At the top right, the original racetrack is visible. Today, all the buildings, except for the racetrack, are in ruins. These were ordered to be destroyed by the Christian Emperor Theodosius II in 426 AD as part of his Christianization program.

TEMPLE OF ZEUS, OLYMPIA, THEN AND NOW



Above left: The origin of the Olympic games - A reconstruction of the Temple of Zeus at Olympia, the great religious and athletic center of Greece, as it appeared circa 440 BC. The games were so important as homage to the gods that wars between the Greek cities were temporarily halted in their honor. Above right: The remains of the Temple, as it can be seen today. The column was re-erected by a German archaeological team in 2004.



THE STATUE OF ZEUS AT OLYMPIA

The Temple of Zeus was designed to contain the finest representation man could make of the god, and for this purpose, the famous sculptor Phidias was hired to come to Olympia. Phidias, already having won fame for his statues of Athena at the Parthenon in Athens, set up a workshop next to the temple, and set to work. His completed statue, finished around 435 BC, was of such magnificence that it was listed as one of the Seven Wonders of the World. Although it was destroyed at the time of the Christian destruction of pagan sites, its description was recorded in many texts and can thus be recreated. It was at least 41 feet (12 meters) tall and made with ivory and gold paneling. Phidias's workshop has been excavated, and his tools, a cast he used for the statues' cloaks, and one of the artist's own cups (identified with the phrase "I belong to Phidias" written on the bottom) were discovered.

the magnificent Temple of Zeus—was ordered destroyed by the Christian Emperor Theodosius II in 426 AD because of its association with non-Christian worship.

The ruins of the city and its major structures have since been excavated, and it is even possible to host sporting events on the athletics field, as was done during the 2004 Summer Olympics when all shot-put events were held there.

Sparta—Militaristic State Emerges from Anarchy

The city-state of Sparta is perhaps the second best-known of all the Greek cities, mainly because its image has been popularized through modern mass entertainment media. The region's original name was Lacedaemon, and Sparta was only the name of the main settlement in the southeastern part of the Peloponnese Peninsula.

The precise origins of the city-state have unfortunately been lost to recorded history, but what is known is that the region was settled during the late Mycenaean era, and in the period following the collapse of that civilization, it struggled greatly with lawlessness and anarchy.

As a result, the Spartan legends—and the main Classical Greek history writers (Herodotus and Thucydides) say—that a local politician by the name of Lycurgus (circa 820 BC) proposed and then implemented a series of far-reaching constitutional and societal reforms to bring the anarchy under control.

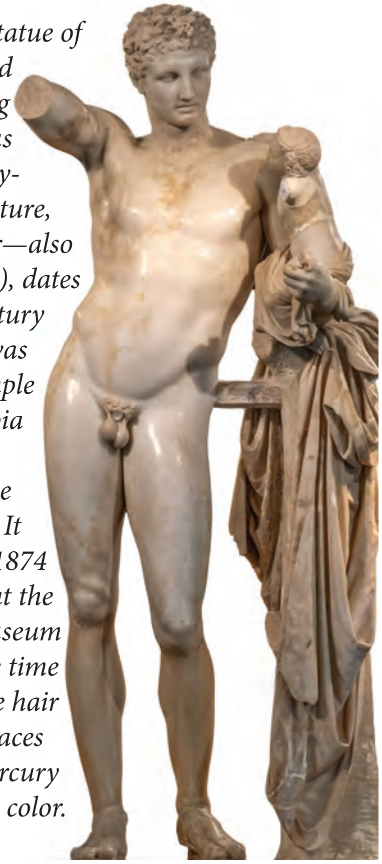
It is unclear whether Lycurgus ever actually existed, but whatever the case, the reforms attributed to him shaped the nature of Spartan society from then on and turned it in a completely different direction from that of the other Greek cities, which slowly evolved into limited democracies.

In terms of these reforms, the Spartans strictly divided their society into three classes, which were based largely solely on race.

At the top were the *Spartiates,* or full citizens of the Spartan state (or part of the *demos*). The vast majority of the inhabitants of Sparta were not citizens, and the law stated that only men who could trace their ancestry to the "original" inhabitants of the city-state could be citizens.

This was a way of delimiting citizenship by race, and as a result, the *Spartiates* tended to be more Nordic in appearance. The *Spartiates* devoted themselves full-time to physical fitness and military arts.

HERMES, HERALD OF THE GODS AT OLYMPIA



A magnificent statue of Hermes, the herald of the gods, holding the Infant Dionysus (the god of merry-making, agriculture, wine, and theater—also known as Bacchus), dates from the 4th century BC. The statue was located in the Temple of Hera in Olympia but was buried in an earthquake around 300 AD. It was excavated in 1874 and is on display at the Archaeological Museum of Olympia. At the time of its discovery, the hair retained slight traces of cinnabar, a mercury sulfate with a red color.

Every Spartan man was a lifelong soldier, never taking part in any other function of society. This had the effect of creating a powerful standing army, which quickly made Sparta the strongest of the Greek city-states and a formidable foe.

The existence of this full-time and fully trained professional army class was unique in history, and the city of Sparta was the only Grecian city that did not have city walls—so feared were the Spartan soldiers, that none deemed it wise to attack.

The historian Thucydides wrote that Spartan settlements were "built in a compact form nor adorned with magnificent temples and public edifices, but composed of villages after the old fashion of Hellas"[6] and gave off an "impression of inadequacy" when compared to Athens.

90% of Spartan Society Was Made Up of Slaves

The middle class, or *Perioeci,* were free non-citizens who undertook the role of running the econ-

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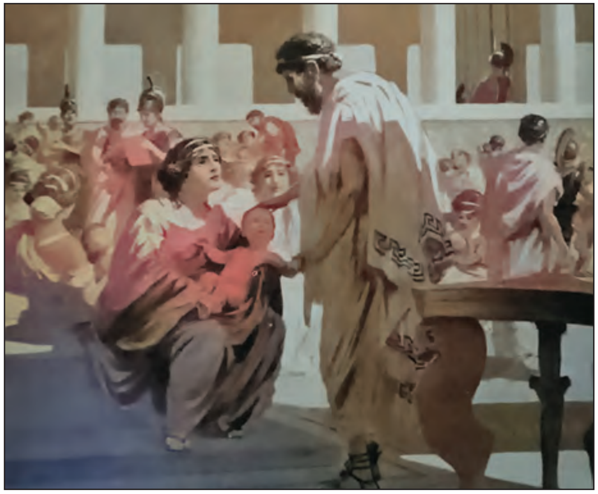
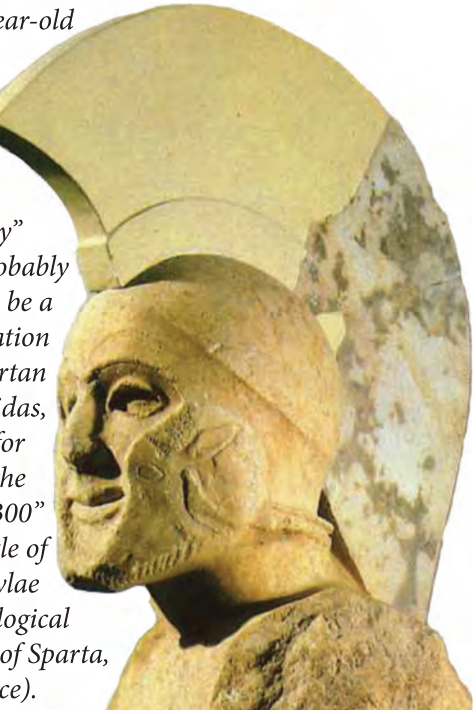
[6] Thucydides. *The Peloponnesian War*, Book I, Chapter 1.

SPARTA: PUBLIC EXAMINATION OF BABIES



As soon as a baby was born in Sparta, its parents were required to present it to state-appointed officials for a public health examination. This public procedure was put in place to prevent allegations of abuse. If the baby was deemed to be irredeemably mentally or physically deformed, it would be left to die outside the city walls.

400BC: MARBLE BUST OF A SPARTAN HOPLITE



A 2500-year-old bust of a Spartan hoplite, or "heavy infantry" soldier, probably meant to be a representation of the Spartan king Leonidas, famous for leading the "Spartan 300" at the Battle of Thermopylae (Archaeological Museum of Sparta, Greece).

omy, controlling commerce and business, as well as being responsible for crafts and manufacturing. The *Perioeci* were mainly comprised of members of the Mycenaean Greek class and tended to be less Nordic in appearance than the *Spartiates.*

The lowest class in Spartan society were the *Helots,* literally state-owned serfs who made up 90 percent of the population. They were made up mainly of slaves captured or purchased, and as a result, came to be the "darkest" element in Spartan society, particularly as the significant number of foreign slaves steadily increased.

It should thus come as little surprise to learn from the classical historical accounts that there was at least one major *Helot* uprising in 464 BC. Taking advantage of a Spartan war with Athens, which had temporarily lifted their slave status, the uprising started with the destruction of Spartiate houses in Sparta and then quickly spread throughout the region.

The Spartans eventually brought the rebellion under control, and after this event, according to the historian Plutarch, once a year in autumn, the Spartan *polis* (government) would formally declare war on the Helots, allowing them to be killed and abused by members of a young men's Spartan society called the *Crypteia,* without fear of repercussion.[7]

Spartan Eugenics: Laws on Marriage and Birth

The Spartans also practiced a crude form of racial eugenics, allowing only the best specimens among them to survive to adulthood. All newborns were examined by a council of elders, and any mentally retarded or severely deformed children were deliberately left to die.[8]

In addition, Spartan laws dictated heavy penalties for celibacy and late marriage and exempted from taxes those who had more than four children. The end effect of all these measures was the gradual Nordicization of the top level of Spartan society. This process was, however, eventually reversed as the warlike nature of the Spartans finally whittled away at their warrior class. Many were killed in battle before having time to procreate in sufficient numbers to keep up a steady population growth.

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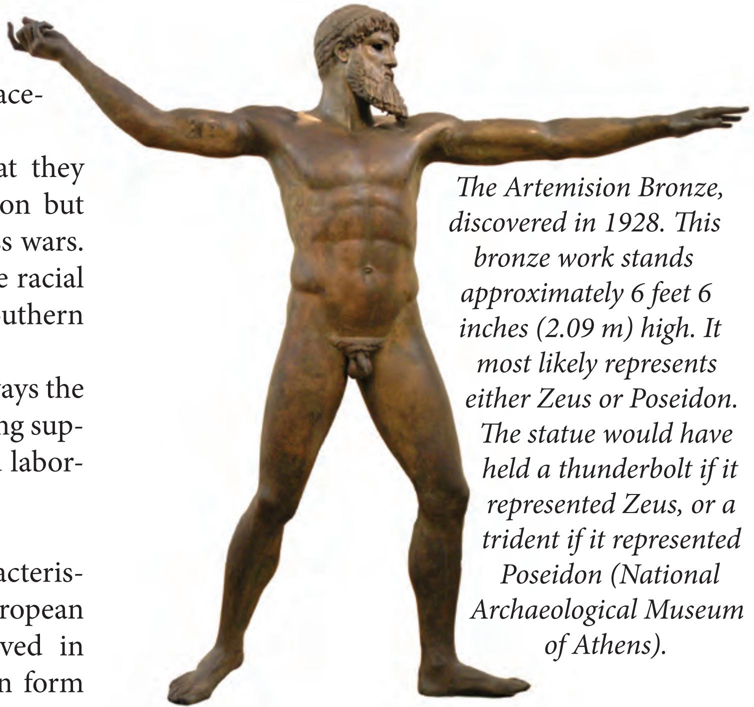
[7] Plutarch, *Life of Lycurgus*, 28, 3–7.

[8] The word "eugenics" has been unjustly slandered in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, and merely means a policy by which the best elements of any species are brought to the fore. This is a policy which all animal breeders to the present day follow. The reasons for the slandering of the policy of eugenics are dealt with in Volume IV of this work.



The Artemision Bronze, discovered in 1928. This bronze work stands approximately 6 feet 6 inches (2.09 m) high. It most likely represents either Zeus or Poseidon. The statue would have held a thunderbolt if it represented Zeus, or a trident if it represented Poseidon (National Archaeological Museum of Athens).

ZEUS/APOLLO IN BRONZE

So weakened, the Spartans were finally overrun by another originally Indo-European people from northern Greece, the Macedonians.

The Spartans are almost unique in that they did not disappear through racial integration but rather through self-extermination in endless wars. Although not as formally defined, this same racial class mix prevailed in almost all of the southern Greek city-states.

The lowest (and darkest) classes were always the numerically superior group, continually being supplemented by the importation of slaves and laborers from other territories.

The Greek Gods

Greek religious beliefs had several characteristics in common with many other Indo-European pre-Christian religions. The Greeks believed in gods who most often resembled humans in form and who also displayed human emotions. They had no holy book or specific directives, so interpretation and practice varied widely.

Their gods resided on a holy mountain, Mount Olympus, in a fairly ordinary society with a strict hierarchical structure. The main gods and their respective areas of responsibility reflect the very earthly nature of the religion as a whole:

- Zeus was the head of the gods and the spiritual father of all the other gods and people. He was also widely known as Dias.
- Hera was Zeus's wife and also the queen of heaven and the guardian of marriage.
- Hephaestus was the god of fire and metalworkers.
- Athena was the goddess of wisdom and war and the official patron of the city named after her.
- Apollo was the god of light, poetry, and music.
- Artemis was the goddess of wildlife and the moon.
- Ares was the god of war.
- Aphrodite was the goddess of love.
- Hestia was the goddess of the hearth.
- Gaea was the goddess of the earth.
- Hermes was the messenger of the gods and the ruler of science and invention.
- Poseidon was the ruler of the sea who, with his wife Amphitrite, led a group of less important sea gods, such as the Nereids and Tritons.
- Demeter, the goddess of agriculture, was associated with the earth.
- Hades, an important god but not generally considered an Olympian, ruled the underworld where he lived with his wife, Persephone. The underworld was a dark and mournful place located at the center of the earth, populated by the souls of the dead.
- Dionysus was the god of wine and pleasure, and as a result, was one of the most popular gods.
- There were also creatures such as fauns (creatures with the legs of a goat and the upper body of a human), centaurs (the head and torso of a man and the body of a horse), and nymphs (beautiful, young, fairy-like women).

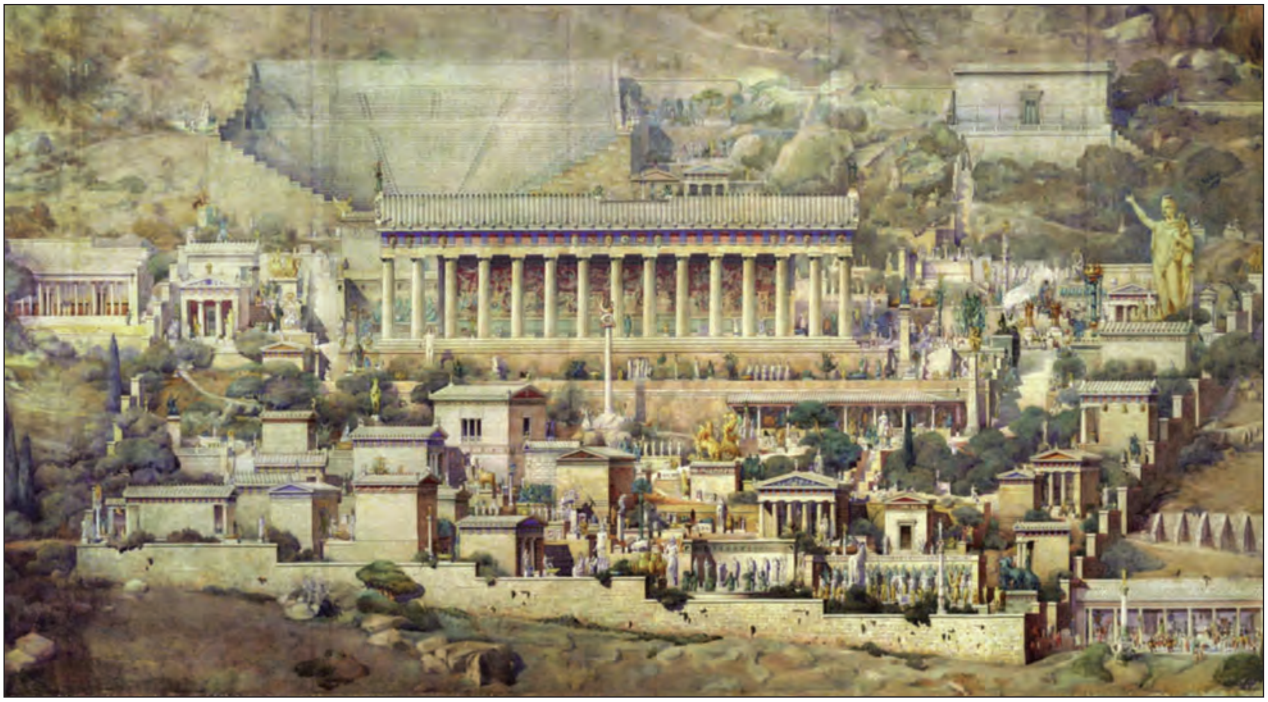
The Greeks believed that the gods controlled all aspects of their lives and that they were totally dependent upon the goodwill of the gods. Each city devoted itself to a particular god or group of gods, for whom temples were built. The most intriguing part of the Greek pantheon was that the gods, despite their superhuman powers, showed human foibles and errors of judgment—a strange mix of the supernatural and the very physical, showing clear similarities to other Indo-European gods.

Delphi: The Seat of the Oracle

The center known as Delphi—set high in the spectacular Parnassus Mountain range—was occupied during the Mycenaean era and was a center for a religious cult from at least 1400 BC. However,

DELPHI: CENTER OF THE WORLD AND RELIGIOUS EPICENTER OF GREECE

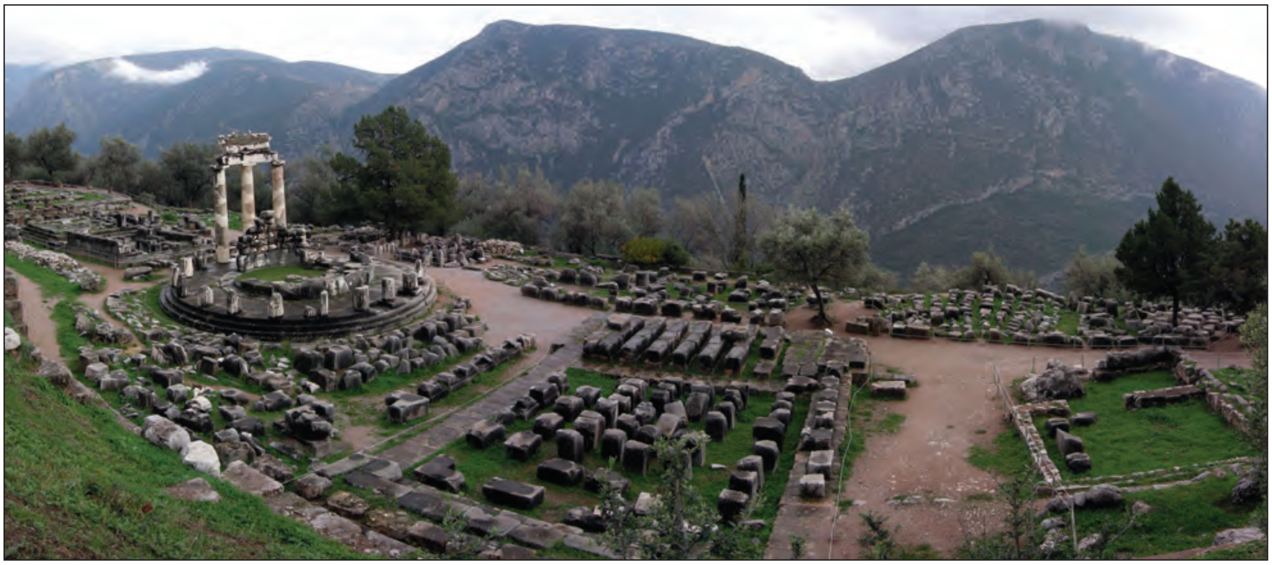
Delphi was considered the center, or "navel," of the world. This belief stemmed from a myth where Zeus released two eagles from opposite ends of the universe and they met in Delphi. Consequently, a stone monument known as the omphalos, meaning "navel" in Greek, was placed there.



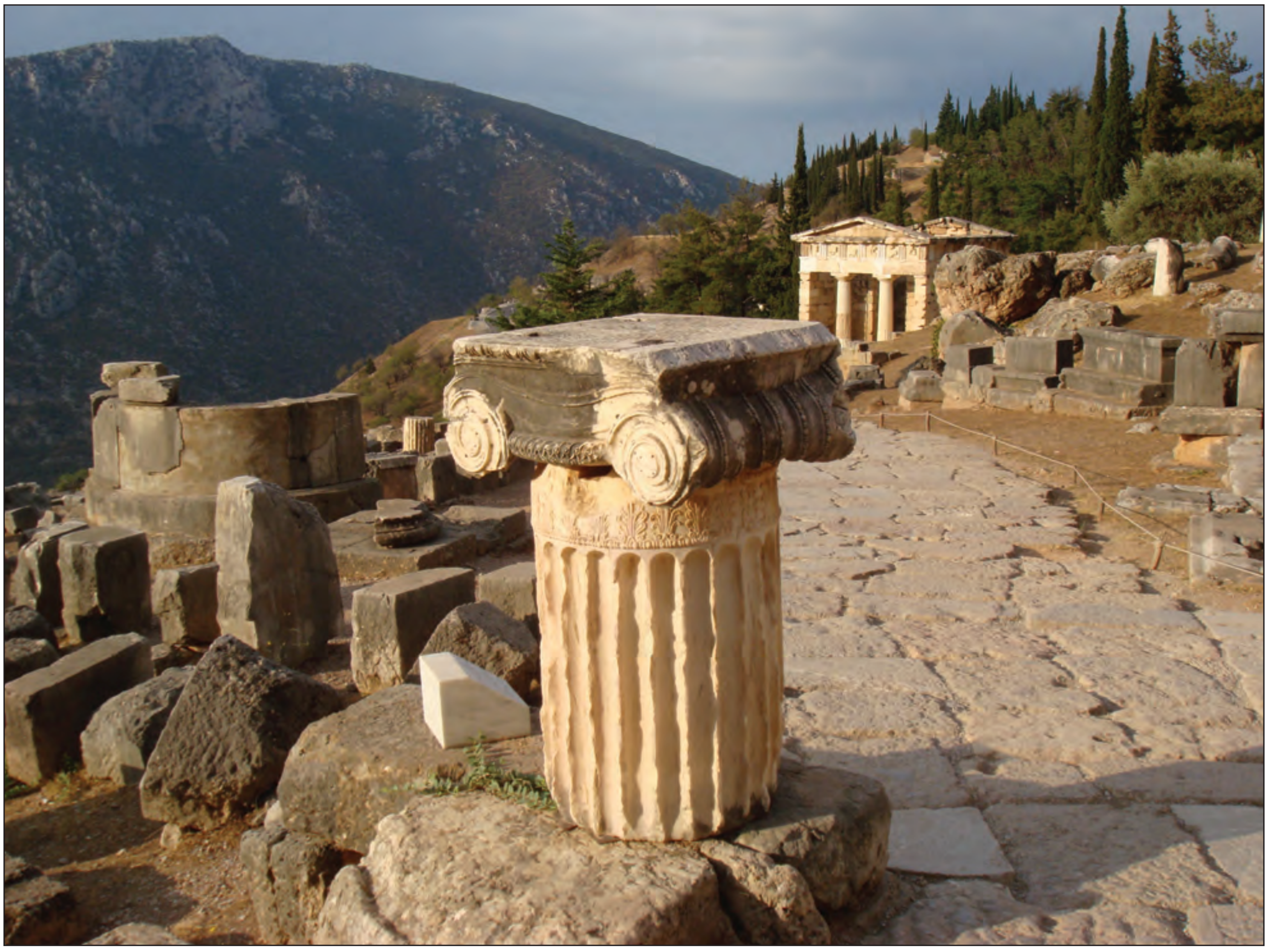
A reconstruction of Delphi at its zenith is depicted above. The theater at Delphi, located at the top left in this image, exploited the spectacular backdrop of the mountains and the Oracle's Sanctuary for the entertainment of its spectators, which could number up to 5,000 at a time. The theater dates back to the 4th century BC.

The image above shows a present-day view from the top of the sanctuary, with the theater in the foreground.

DELPHI: LOWER SANCTUARY AND THE SACRED WAY



The lower part of the sanctuary of Delphi housed a circular tholos temple for Athena Pronaia, numerous other sacred sites, and an athletics stadium.



The restored treasury of Athens dominates the Sacred Way on the path leading up to the Temple of Apollo at Delphi. In buildings like these, cities, kings, and wealthy individuals would place gifts and offerings to Apollo. The richness of these treasures became legendary, and they were looted more than once as a result.

THE CHARIOTEER OF DELPHI

The Delphi "charioteer," was buried under a rockfall in 373 BC and remained hidden until its excavation in 1896. Its good state of preservation makes it one of the few Greek bronze statues that still preserves its inlaid glass eyes.

it was only around 800 BC that it was rededicated to the worship of the god Apollo. It then quickly became the greatest religious center of the ancient world. It was here that Apollo—working through his oracles—dispensed advice and prophecies to all who sought it.

The buildings on the site grew increasingly spectacular as time went on, evolving from a great temple dedicated to Apollo into a small town complete with its own athletics fields, open-air theater, administrative, and residential areas.

The main path up to the Temple of Apollo was known as the Sacred Way, and it contained a series of smaller buildings—called treasuries—which held gifts and works of art given as tributes by kings and commoners alike, either in thanks for advice received or in hope of favors to come from the gods. Directly because of its highly venerated status, control of the settlement of Delphi was coveted by many of the Greek city-states, and at least five so-called "Sacred Wars" were fought over it from 595 to 290 BC.

Delphi continued to function as a religious site right up to the time of the Christian Emperor Theodosius I, who, as part of the legally enforced abolition of all non-Christian religions, ordered all such sites to be closed down. The site was first excavated again in 1892, and many spectacular ancient treasures have been uncovered since then.

Greek Academia—Origin of Western Thought

Magnificent architecture is not the only legacy of classical Greece. Between the years 700–400 BC, there were great philosophical, cultural, and scientific achievements. Any review of classical Greece is incomplete without an overview of these great works.

— Greek philosophy is still held in high esteem. The father of philosophy was one Thales (636–546 BC) who lived in the Ionian city of Miletus. Thales was the first philosopher to offer an explanation of life in terms of natural causes, and not in terms of the whims of the gods.

— The geometrician Pythagoras (582–500 BC) came from Samos in Ionia, and is most famous for his geometric theory regarding right-angled triangles.

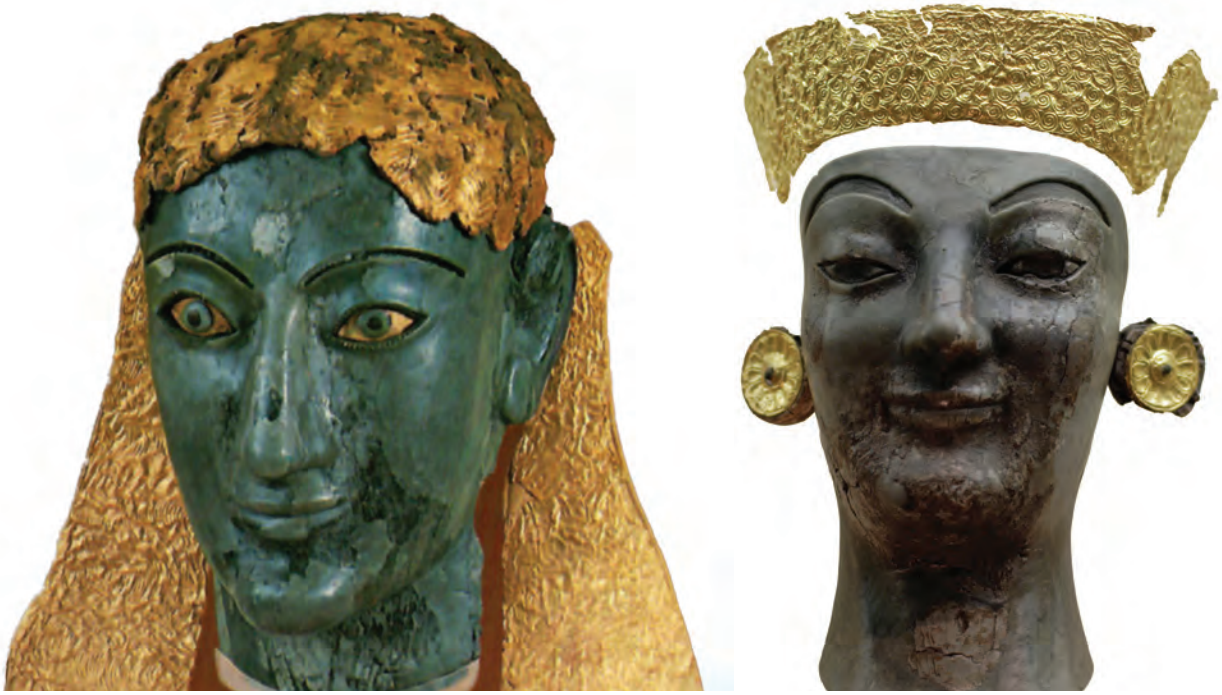
— Another group of philosophers came to be known as the Sophists, teachers of debate known as rhetoric. The Sophists insisted that truth in itself was a relative concept and denied the existence of any universal standards. The most famous Sophist was Protagoras (490–421 BC) from whose name the word "protagonist" originates.

— In the fourth century, a philosopher named Diogenes founded a school of philosophers known as the Cynics. They had no respect for the rules and regulations of society and lived very simply. Diogenes lived this philosophy as well, allegedly using a storage jar as his home.

— The Stoic philosophers were named after the *stoa* (porch) where their founder, Zeno, taught. They believed that if people acted naturally, they would behave well because their nature was controlled by the gods.

— The most outstanding opponent of the Sophists was the Athenian-born Socrates (470–399 BC), who believed in and sought after eternal truth. Unfortunately for him, his quest eventually led to his

BRONZE APOLLO AND ARTEMIS BUSTS FROM DELPHI 500 BC



Two spectacular bronze busts from Delphi depict the gods Apollo (left) and Artemis (right). The Apollo bust has hair made of silver and gold, while Artemis wears a golden tiara. Artemis was also known as Diana by the Romans. (Delphi Archaeological Museum).

enforced suicide after his fellow Athenians accused him of disobeying religious laws and corrupting the youth.

— The greatest of Socrates' disciples was Plato (427–347 BC), who achieved immortality by writing the first systematic treatise in political science, *The Republic*. Plato saw society as being divided into three classes: bronze (the workers), silver (the middle class), and gold (the ruling class). Significantly, Plato was the first renowned philosopher to recognize race as a factor in the rise and fall of civilizations. In *The Republic,* he also stated that the first requirement of continued statehood was the necessity of retaining racial homogeneity.

— Plato's greatest pupil was, in turn, Aristotle (384–322 BC), who wrote extensively on a large number of topics including art, biology, mathematics, politics, logic, and rhetoric. Aristotle was also the tutor of Alexander of Macedonia, later known as Alexander the Great.

— Hippocrates (circa 420 BC) was a brilliant physician who revised much of what was known about medicine. His Hippocratic Oath is still used by doctors today as a code of professional ethics.

— Great Greek playwrights include Aeschylus (525–456 BC); Sophocles (496–406 BC), who was best known for his play *Oedipus Rex* (properly known as *Oedipus Tyrannus*), about a man who mistakenly marries his mother; Euripides (480–406 BC); and the comedian Aristophanes (445–385 BC).

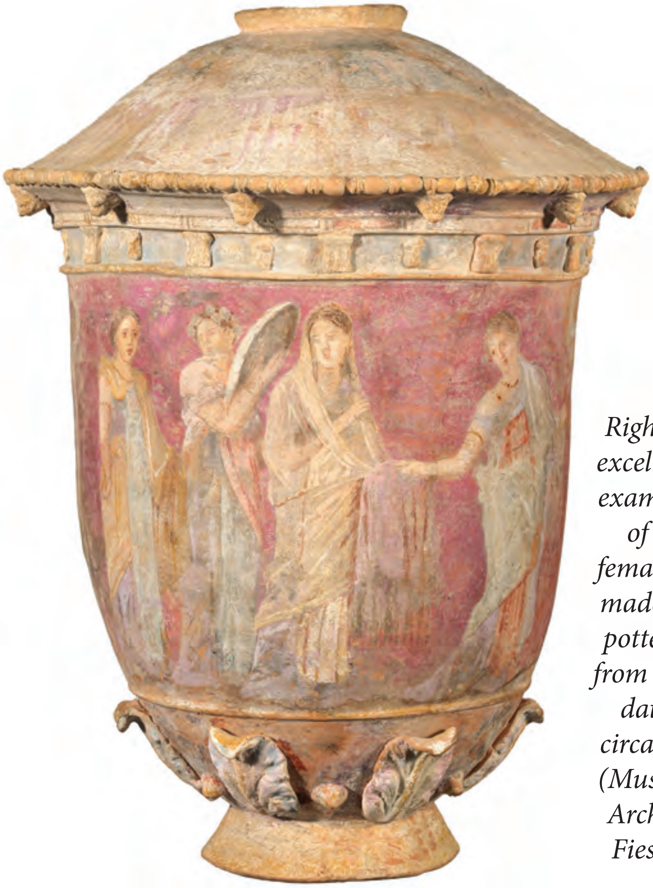
— One freed slave became famous as a storyteller: Aesop (properly named Aesopus), who lived in the fourth century BC. He is best remembered for his collection of short stories, each with a moral lesson.

Ionians Occupied and Rebel against Persians

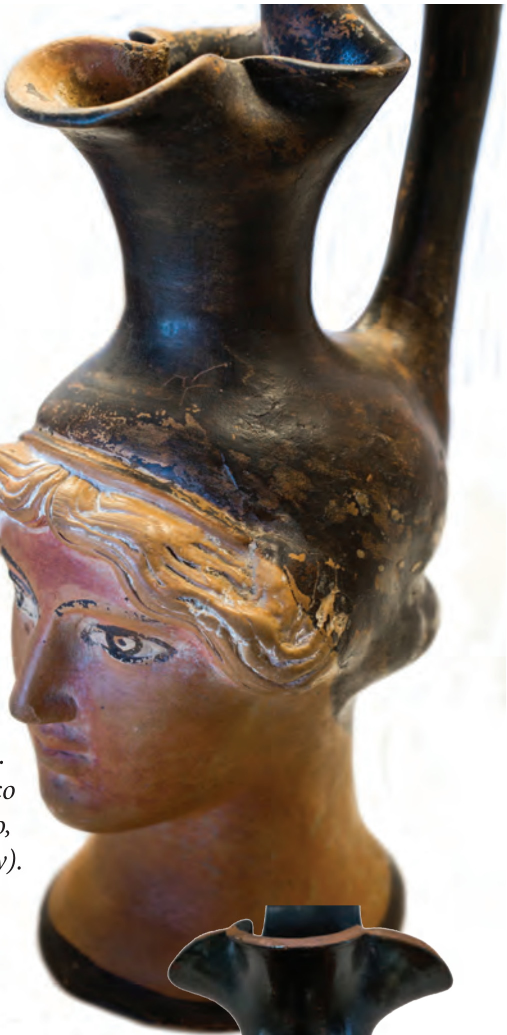
Far to the east of Greece, a new menace arose around the year 490 BC. The Persians—also originally an Indo-European people who had later mixed with non-European elements—started expanding westward and reached Anatolia, and the frontiers of the Greek settlements, in that year. Their overwhelming numbers soon saw several Greek states along the western Anatolian coast (present-day Turkey) submit to the foreigner's rule.

After the Persian King Darius I ascended to the throne, the Ionians rebelled and reclaimed their in-

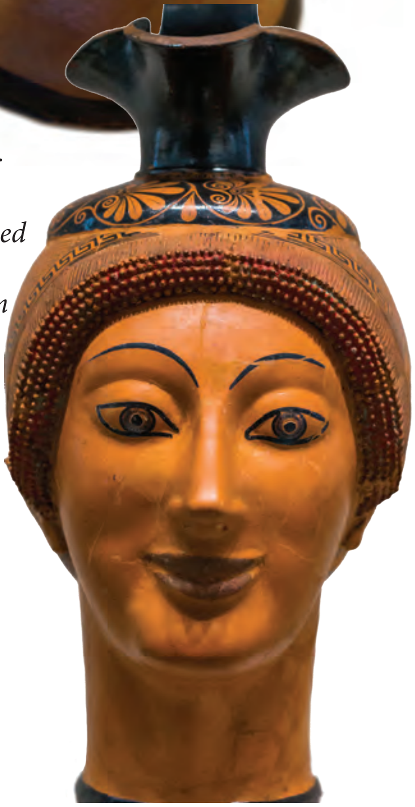
RACIAL TYPES IN CLASSICAL GREEK ART



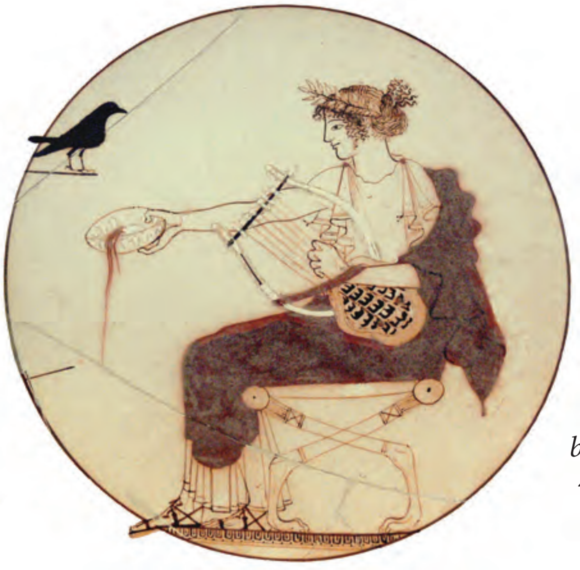
Above: A painted vase showing a young bride being prepared for her wedding by her attendants. Painted vases have the advantage over the more common ceramic versions in that they allow the artist to more fully express the coloring of the subjects. From the 3rd century BC. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York).



Right: An excellent example of a female face made into a pottery jug, from Athens, dated to circa 430 BC. (Museo Civico Archeologico, Fiesole, Italy).



Right: Another example of a female face worked into a pottery pouring jug, from Athens, circa 500 BC. Signed by the potter, one "Charinos." (Berlin, Altes Museum, Germany).



Left: Apollo pours a libation: a shallow bowl (kylix) from circa 480–470 BC. (Delphi Archaeological Museum).

ORIGINAL GREEK BUSTS REVEAL RACIAL TYPES

Left to right: Zeno of Cyprus, founder of Stoic philosophy; Pericles, the most famous Athenian leader of all time; Demosthenes of Athens, the finest orator of his day; and Sophocles of Athens, one of the most famous playwrights of ancient Greece.

Left to right: Euripides, Athenian playwright; Plato, one of the most famous philosophers of all time; Socrates, an equally famous philosopher (and also of Alpine subracial type); and Aristotle, Plato's pupil and later tutor of Alexander the Great. All from original Greek sculptures.

dependence, sparking off a five-year war from 499 to 494 BC. At the end of it, the Persian invaders were victorious, and, by way of punishing the Ionians for their rebellion, laid waste to the ancient city of Miletus.

While the Ionian struggle was in full swing, the city-state of Athens sent military aid to Ionia, and this, in turn, caused the Persians to continue with their push westward. Thereafter followed two Persian invasions of the Greek mainland, the first starting in 492 BC.

The First Greco-Persian War 492 to 490 BC

The first part of the Persian campaign was highly successful, and their armies in the north succeeded in reoccupying Thrace (another region inhabited by a different Indo-European tribe, the Thracians, whose land is now in present-day Bulgaria) and in forcing the northernmost of the Greek tribes, the Macedonians, to become their vassals.

This campaign came unstuck after the Persian fleet was wrecked in a storm off the northeastern coast of Greece, and the largest part of the Persian army was forced to retreat back to Anatolia.

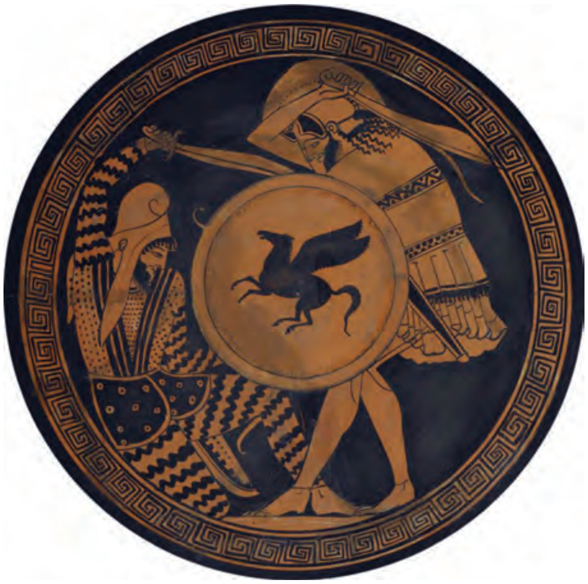
The second part of the campaign, launched the following year, also started out successfully. The Persian king sent ambassadors to all the Greek city-states, demanding their submission or they would face obliteration.

Only the cities of Athens and Sparta refused to agree to the demands and famously executed the

ORIGIN OF WESTERN DRAMA—ACOUSTICALLY PREFECT GREEK THEATERS

Above left: The theater of Dionysus at Athens where the Great Tragedies were first performed around 440 BC. Above right: The Greek theater at Epidaurus, circa 350 BC. Many of the amphitheaters can still be used for performances to the present day, so perfect are the acoustics and design of the construction.

GREEKS AND PERSIANS IN COMBAT



A Greek soldier in combat with a Persian, as shown on a 5th-century drinking cup, or kylix. (National Archaeological Museum of Athens).

ambassadors as their response. This was a de facto declaration of war upon the Persians, and in 490 BC, a new Persian fleet set out to smash the two defiant Greek cities.

After seizing many of the larger islands between Rhodes and Greece's eastern coast—and either slaughtering or enslaving the Greeks along the way—the Persians then seized the island of Euboea, which is a large landmass located just 60 miles (80 kilometers) to the north of Athens. There, they razed the city of Eretria after two traitors opened the gates for the invaders. All the Greek survivors of the battle were enslaved.

The Battle of Marathon: First Persian Defeat

The Persian fleet then sailed south and landed at the bay of Marathon, only 25 miles (40 kilometers) from Athens. Their troops disembarked, intending to march on Athens. The Athenian army, however, prepared their defenses well and blocked the Persians from leaving the plain of Marathon. After five days, the Persians decided to reembark and join a secondary Persian force sailing around the peninsula to the gates of Athens.

The Athenians seized their opportunity, and as soon as the Persian cavalry had re-embarked, the Athenian army attacked, and a full-scale battle ensued, which ended with a decisive Greek victory. According to Herodotus, 6,400 Persians were killed for the loss of only 192 Athenians. The defeated invaders fled back to their starting points in Anatolia The secondary Persian invasion force was prevented from securing a landing spot and returned to their base, defeated.

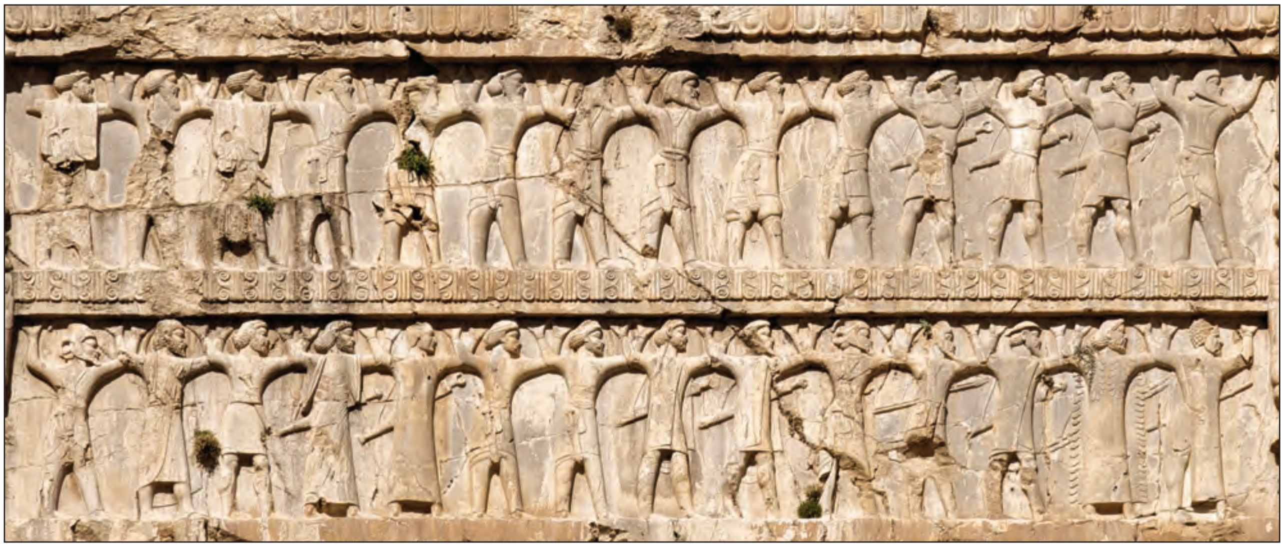
The Battle of Marathon was not just a great Greek victory but also a psychological turning point: it showed that the Persians could be defeated, instilling new hope in the Greek city-states that had been too afraid to challenge the seemingly invincible invaders.

Eventually, in 481 BC, anticipating a renewed Persian attack, a formal alliance of Greek states emerged to jointly oppose any new invasion from the east.

The Second Persian Invasion 480 BC

It took the Persians ten years to gather their strength to invade Europe once more, but in 480 BC, a huge invasion force—certainly the largest in

MIXED RACE PERSIAN ARMY INVADES EUROPE, 480 BC



The tomb of Persian Emperor Darius I at Naqsh-e Rostam, near Persepolis in present-day Iran, features on its "upper register" depictions of the different races that comprised his army. These are, from left to right, top row to bottom row: Median, Elamite, Parthian, Arian, Bactrian, Sogdian, Choresmian, Zarangian, Arachosian, Sattagydian, Gandharan, Hindush, Saka (the name given to all the nomadic tribes to the north), Kuumavarga, Saka Tigraxauda, Babylonian, Assyrian, Arab, Egyptian, Armenian, Cappadocian, Lydian, Ionian, Saka, Skudrian, Libyan, and Ethiopian. Only a handful of these could be classified as white.

ancient history, and, according to Herodotus, comprising soldiers from 80 different nations, including some Indo-Europeans (such as the Scythians), Indians, Arabs, Africans ("Ethiopians . . . wrapped in skins of leopards and lions"[9]), and many other mixed-race peoples—crossed into Europe via a bridge of boats over the Bosporus Straits.

Once on the European side of the Bosporus, the massive army—estimated in the hundreds of thousands—was joined by a massive fleet at the port of Doriskos, located at the easternmost border of Macedonian territory.

As the Persian army had taken three months to reach Doriskos, the Greek alliance was aware of their movements, and the Athenian General Themistocles proposed sending a force to block the Persian army on land at the narrow pass of Thermopylae, some 124 miles (200 kilometers) from Athens. At the same time, the Greek navies would blockade the sea routes, or so the plan went.

Spartans' Heroic Stand at Thermopylae, 480 BC

The Greek forces gathered as planned at the Thermopylae Pass and were under the overall command of the Spartan king Leonidas I with his personal bodyguard of 300 of the most experienced soldiers they could provide. Contrary to the legend that has grown up around these events, the Spartans were supported by other Greek forces, and when they took up their defensive positions at the pass, there were several thousand soldiers among their ranks.

The plan initially worked well, and repeated Persian attacks were driven off with heavy losses. However, after two days, Leonidas revealed to the rest of the Greek forces that they had been outflanked by the Persians and ordered the main body of the army to retreat while he covered the withdrawal with what is now estimated to be around 2000 men (and not the 300 which has entered legend).

The historian Herodotus claimed that the Persians had outflanked the Greek forces thanks to a traitor named Ephialtes, who had shown the Persians a secret mountain path that led behind the Greek lines. This claim has never been verified, but it is possible.

In any event, Leonidas and his fellow defenders faced a final overwhelming Persian attack and held the pass long enough for the main body of Greeks

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[9] Herodotus, *The Histories,* Book 7, section 69.

LEONIDAS AND THE SPARTANS AT THERMOPYLAE

A monument representing Leonidas at Thermopylae, present-day Greece, near the site of the 480 BC battle. Archaeological digs near the statue have revealed Persian arrows and other items from the battlefield. The pass, which was at the time of the battle barely large enough to accommodate 100 men standing shoulder to shoulder, has since been worn away by water erosion, and today is an open plain.

to escape. They were all killed in the final battle and entered folklore hero status in European history.

When news came that the Thermopylae Pass had fallen, the Greek fleet, defending the sea flank, retreated to the island of Salamis.

480 BC: Athens Falls to the Persians

The Persian breakthrough at Thermopylae spelled doom for Athens, and the city's leaders ordered the entire settlement's population evacuated to the island of Salamis, which is located just a handful of miles off the coast of Athens. A tiny number of Athenians stayed behind in Athens, entrenching themselves on the Acropolis, determined to defend that holy site against the Persians.

At the same time, the rest of the Greek alliance began feverishly building a defensive wall across the narrowest part of the landmass, which connects the Peloponnesian Peninsula to the continent. They all knew that what followed would be decisive. As expected, the Persian forces quickly stormed the deserted city of Athens, slaughtering the handful of defenders on top of the Acropolis. The Persians then destroyed the city, literally tearing down everything they could find, including the Temple of Athena and other buildings on the Acropolis, so that only rubble remained.

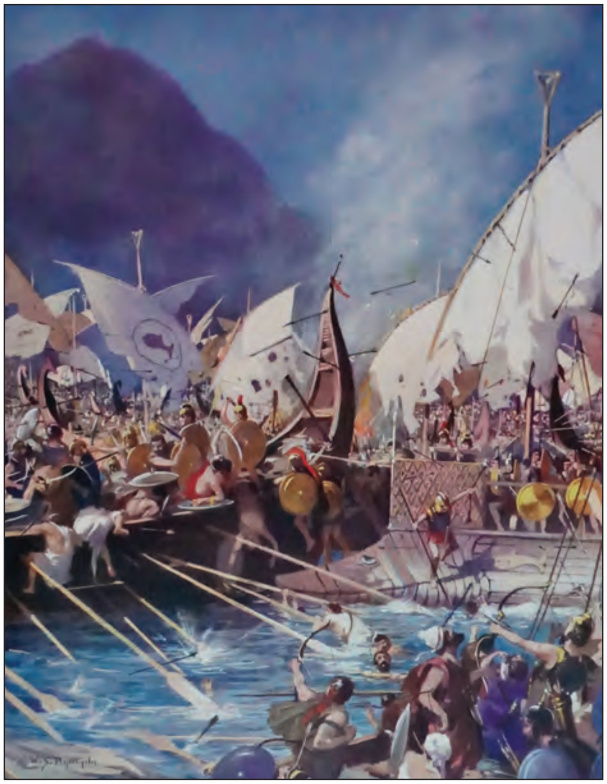
Battle of Salamis 480 BC—Greece Saved

Although heavily outnumbered—the Persian fleet numbered over 1200 ships against the 370 Greek *triremes*—the Greek forces were rallied by the famous Athenian General Themistocles, who devised a cunning plan to lure the Persian fleet into the narrow Straits of Salamis by pretending to retreat and drawing the enemy forward.

In the narrow confines of the strait, the Persian numerical superiority was negated, and with courage born of desperation, the Greek fleet attacked with such ferocity that over 300 Persian ships were sunk, with the loss of 40 Greek vessels. The rest of the Persian fleet, most of it badly damaged, was scattered and retreated.

In this victory, the Greeks were aided by the fact that many of their ships had been designed with rams built into the prows below the waterline—a devastating innovation that sank many Persian ships without warning.

BATTLE OF SALAMIS: GREEKS SAVE EUROPE



The 480 BC clash between the combined navies of the Greek states and the numerically superior Persian navy resulted in a complete rout of the invading Persians, thereby halting the invasion of Europe at that point.

THEMISTOCLES, SAVIOR OF GREECE

Themistocles (circa 524–459 BC) was the Athenian general whose military genius saved Greece from the Persian invasion. Having taken part in the Battle of Marathon, he commanded the Greek forces after the fall of Athens and, through his tactics, lured the invading Persians into a strategic error during the naval battle of Salamis. Even though the Greeks were heavily outnumbered, they were able to use their strategic advantage to utterly defeat the Persians. Sadly, Themistocles later fell out with his fellow Greeks and ended his life in exile, serving the Persian kingdom as a provincial ruler.

The Battle of Salamis was the first recorded naval battle in all history and, certainly, one of the most decisive for early Western Civilization, as it prevented the early Asianization of Greek culture and thus much of Western culture.

Persian Defeat: The Battle of Plataea 479 BC

The Persian King Xerxes, who physically observed the battle from the coastal mountaintop of Poikilon Oros (today called Mount Aigaleo), was forced to watch the disaster unfold before his eyes. Fearing that the Greek fleet would sail to the Bosporus and destroy his bridge, he ordered a general retreat of the main body of his army, leaving a substantial force in Greece to hold the ground while he rebuilt his navy.

The next year, in July 479 BC, the Greek and Persian forces in mainland Greece met in battle once again, in the foothills of Mount Cithaeron near Plataea in central Greece. Before the battle could begin, the majority of the Greek army was forced into a chaotic withdrawal after their supplies failed to reach them, and a small force of only 11,500 Spartan-led hoplites was left to face the wrath of the Persian army, which numbered in the hundreds of thousands.

The Spartan general in charge of the small Greek force, Pausanias, immediately ordered an attack and charged downhill in close formation. The speed, tactics, and superior training of the Spartan forces overwhelmed the Persians, and the invaders were once again routed. At the same time, the Greek fleet attacked what remained of the Persian fleet off the island of Samos (near the coast of present-day Turkey). The Persians, aware that their vessels were inferior to the *triremes*, refused to do battle and beached their ships, joining a large nearby land army.

Battle of Mycale, 479 BC: Final Greek Victory

The commander of the Greek naval forces, the Spartan king Leotychides, then ordered his troops to land and engage the enemy. Even though the Greeks were outnumbered and were attacking a fortified Persian camp, the hoplites once again proved themselves superior in combat and won what would become the final victory of the campaign. Large numbers of the Persian army were killed, and their beached navy was burned to the last ship. The time of the Persian offensive was over, and now the Greeks would counterattack.

Greek Offensive and the "Peace of Callias"

In 478 BC, a large number of Greek states formed an alliance known as the Delian League with the purpose of driving the Persians out of the Greek cities and coastal islands of Ionia and Anatolia.

Athens, with its status among the Greek city-states enhanced by the victories already achieved, became the undisputed leader of the Delian League—a fact made possible by the Spartan refusal to take part in the alliance or any further fighting in Anatolia.

After a series of campaigns lasting nearly 30 years, the last of the Persian occupiers were driven out of Ionia, and the war culminated in the 467 BC Battle of the Eurymedon River in Pamphylia (located on the southern coast of present-day Turkey), where a Greek fleet defeated a Persian army and navy. Exhausted, the Persians finally agreed to end the war in 449 BC.

According to the writings of the Greek historian Diodorus, the war was ended by a treaty negotiated by a famous Athenian politician, Callias. Under this treaty, named after its originator, the Persian king Artaxerxes I renounced all claims to the Greek states and undertook never to bring the Persian navy back into the Aegean Sea.

Other Greek historians have disputed whether the "Peace of Callias" ever existed, but whatever the case, the fact remains that after this date, the war between Greece and Persia was finally over.

The Peloponnesian Inter-Greek Wars 431–404 BC

As devastating as the Greco-Persian conflict had been (Athens, for example, had to rebuild from scratch), the Greek city-states were not finished with war.

For 27 years, from 431 to 404 BC, the two leading city-states in ancient Greece, Athens and Sparta, along with other states aligned to one or the other side, engaged in a devastating civil war, which was described by the historian Thucydides as the "most momentous war" up to that time.

The Two Alliances Emerge

After the end of the Persian Wars, Greece was divided into two alliances: the Spartan League (mostly monarchies or oligarchies led by the city of Sparta) and the Athenian Empire (mostly democracies led by the city of Athens). Internal politicking, jealousy, general mistrust, and conflict between democracy and oligarchy led to the outbreak of war between the two alliances.

The first phase of the war was inconclusive; while the Spartans had a strong land force, the Athenians were more powerful at sea. The city-state of Athens was further protected by massive and well-built fortifications, which included the "Long Walls." These were approximately seven miles long lining a single road linking Athens with its major port, Piraeus, through which the Athenian navy could keep the city supplied in times of siege.

In 430 BC, however, a plague broke out in Athens and a quarter of the population, including its famous leader Pericles, died. The Spartan League also suffered as the plague spread, and by 421 BC, both sides were exhausted. A peace treaty was signed, but the peace was short-lived, and renewed conflict broke out in 415 BC when the Athenians attempted an invasion of Sicily, where Spartan-aligned colonies had been established.

The Persians, still smarting from their defeat at the hands of the Athenians in 480 BC, then intervened, offering the Spartans money and resources to build a fleet to match that of the Athenians. The condition was that the Spartan League guaranteed the Persians a free hand in Ionia.

The Spartan League accepted the offer, and in 405 BC, the new Spartan fleet scored a decisive naval victory at a harbor called Aegospotami in Thrace. The Spartans captured 170 Athenian ships and took about four thousand prisoners—a blow from which Athens could not recover. The Spartans then renewed their siege of Athens. This time, the Athenians were forced to surrender, an event which took place in 404 BC. They had no fleet to supply the city, and the resultant famine caused a collapse in the will to resist.

Racial Effects of the Peloponnesian War

Both Athens and Sparta, along with their respective allies, were severely impacted by the prolonged war. Athens was bankrupted, and its treasury was entirely depleted. The war also resulted in a manpower shortage due to the high number of casualties. Precise casualty figures are not available, but an indication can be deduced from the accounts provided by the historian Thucydides, who lived through the war. For example, during a disastrous expedition to attack Spartan colonies in Sicily (415-413 BC), Athens lost a major portion of its fleet and potentially thousands of soldiers and sailors.

Sparta Unable to Hold Onto its Gains

In Sparta, the war enhanced its military reputation, but it also exposed the limitations of its political and economic system. Sparta was unable to maintain control over the vast empire it inherited from Athens, and its hegemony was short-lived. This allowed the Persians to reassert their influence over the Anatolian colonies, which also had a racial impact on the population there.

This, combined with the ever-growing foreign slave population, would, within a matter of a century or two, lay the former glory of Greece prostrate, and the enfeebled population could not withstand any further outside invasions.

Slavery and the Importation of Racial Aliens

Greece was a slave-driven society, and many Greek writings reveal that slavery was considered an essential part of society. For example, the writer Hesiod, in his 750 BC work *Works and Days*, wrote of how it was essential for all men to “get a house, and a woman, and an ox for the plough—a slave woman and not a wife, to follow the oxen...,” while Demosthenes, in his 350 BC work *Against Timocrates*, points out that the difference “between being a slave and being a free man... is that the body of a slave is made responsible for all his misdeeds, whereas corporal punishment is the last penalty to inflict on a free man.”

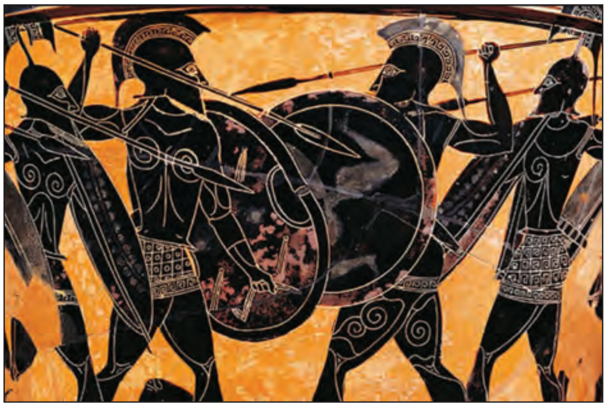
400,000 Slaves in Athens Alone, 400 BC

It is estimated that the city of Athens had the largest slave population, with as many as 80,000 in the 6th and 5th centuries BC, or an average of three per household. A census created by the head of administration for the city of Athens, Demetrius Phalereus, circa 310 BC, revealed that there were 21,000 citizens, 10,000 metics (foreign residents with no political rights), and *an astonishing 400,000 slaves—and this for one Greek city alone.*[10]

In Sparta, the situation was not much different—it has already been recounted above that 90% of the population of that city-state was helots, or serfs. *Given these numbers, it is clearly impossible for all these slaves to have been fellow Greeks or even from surrounding parts of Europe. Such vast numbers would have come from other regions, notably those traditionally supplying slaves in Africa.*

In 411 BC, forty years after Pericles had enacted his law limiting citizenship to those of biological Athenian descent only, the law was reversed. Citizenship of Athens was given to tens of thousands of foreigners who had entered the city, most of whom were Middle Eastern. The argument used was that the city-state had to make up the huge population losses suffered as a result of the Persian and

GREEK VERSUS GREEK: THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR EXHAUSTS GREECE



The Greek city-states fought each other for 26 years, ending when Athens fell to Spartan forces. The bloody toll on the population, combined with the continued importation of vast numbers of slaves, left all of Greece exhausted and unable to withstand the new invaders, Macedonia and Rome.

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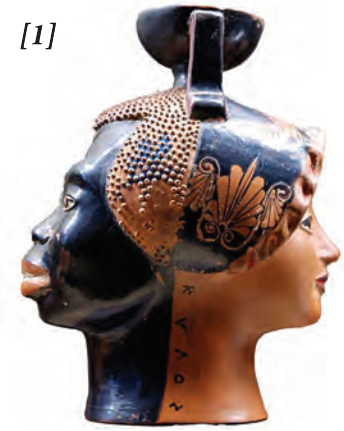
[10] These figures come to use directly from Demetrios of Phaleron, as recorded in his work *The Ten Years,* as copied over by the historian Ctesicles in his *Chronika,* the relevant parts of which were preserved in the work Deipnosophistae by the historian Athenaeus of Naucratis.

AFRICANS AS SLAVES IN CLASSICAL GREEK ART

It is an established fact that there were 400,000 slaves in Athens alone, and that for just one city of dozens in Greece. It is also known that 90 percent of the population of Sparta were slaves of one sort or another. While there are no records of exactly who these slaves were, or precisely where they came from, their sheer numbers mean that they could not have all been fellow Greeks. Substantial numbers must have come from outside Greece, with the Greek colonies in North Africa (Cyrene, or present-day Libya) and in Egypt (Naukratis) being the most likely sources for slaves. The presence of African slaves in Classical Greece is attested to by the plentiful depictions of that race in Greek art, which almost always portrayed Africans as servants or in service positions. One of the favorite portrayals was as a serving jug for wine or oil, as these examples show:

[1]



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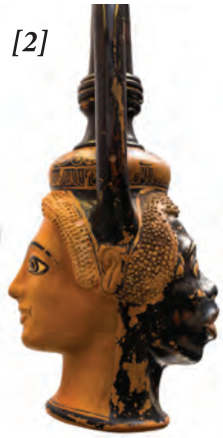

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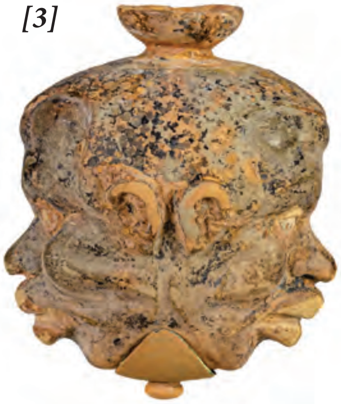

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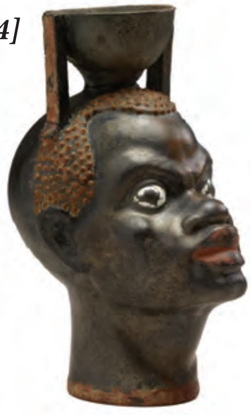
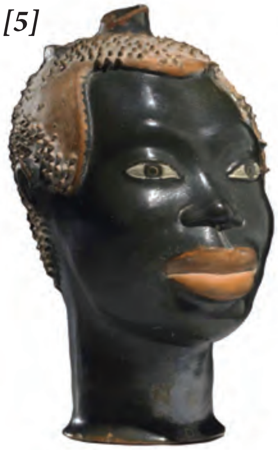


From left to right: [1] An African and a female head are juxtaposed against each other, set into an aryballos, a flask with a narrow neck, circa 510 BC. (Louvre Museum, Paris). [2] Another example of racial types juxtaposed in a flask. (Staatliche Antikensammlungen, München). [3] An aryballos, or oil flask, in the form of two African slave heads, dating from the late 5th century BC. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York). [4] Another terracotta aryballos in the shape of an African's head, dated to circa 450 BC, Athens. (Walters Art Museum, Baltimore, Maryland).

[5]



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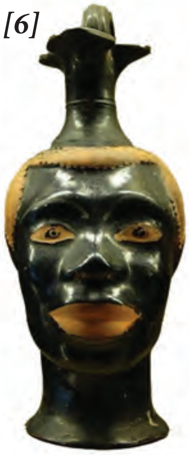

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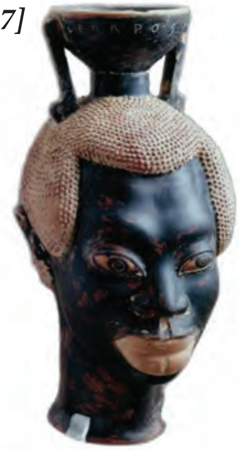

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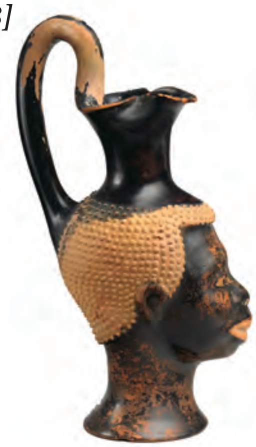

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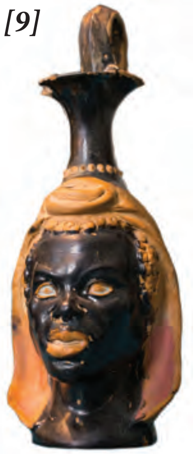
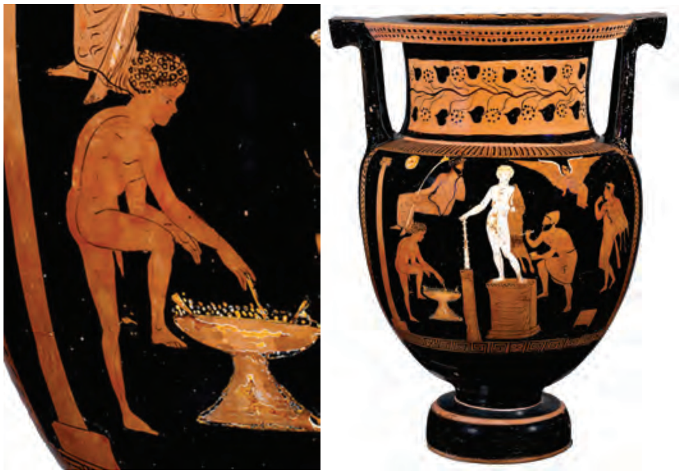


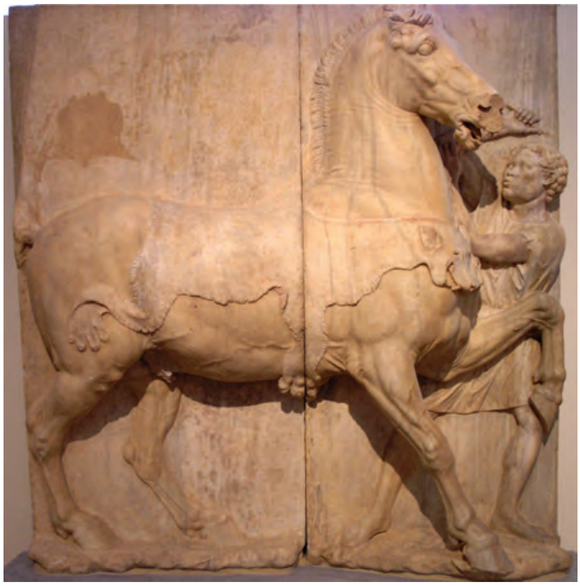
[5] An oinochoe in the form of an African head, this time with the spout and the handle broken off. Circa 450 BC, Athens. (British Museum, London). [6] A clay oinochoe ("wine-pourer," or wine jug), in the shape of an African slave's head. Circa 510 BC, Athens. (Louvre Museum, Paris). [7] A terracotta aryballos in the shape of an African's head, dated to circa 450 BC, Athens. (Walters Art Museum. Baltimore). [8] A terracotta oinochoe (wine jug) in the form of an African slave's head, circa 480 BC. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York). T[9] he head of an African slave is presented as a pouring jug, Athens, circa 450 BC. (Museum für Kunst und Gewerbe, Antikensammlung, Hamburg).

AFRICAN SLAVE TENDS THE FIRE, 350 BC



A krater, or two-handled vase-bowl used in Ancient Greece for mixing wine and water, shows artists working on a statue while an African slave tends a brazier. Dated to circa 350 BC. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York).

ETHIOPIAN SLAVE IN ATHENS, 400 BC



A funerary stele found in Athens shows an Ethiopian slave attempting to bring an unruly horse under control. (National Archaeological Museum of Athens).

inter-Grecian wars. By this stage, the racial mix of Athens and many other Grecian city-states was beginning to show the effects of the importation of peoples from elsewhere in the Middle East, and significant sections of the population had become darker than even during Pericles' time.

This darkening of the population (caused partly by the Nordic and original European elements of Grecian society warring themselves to extinction—and partly by the importation of masses of already mixed Middle Eastern peoples) runs directly in tandem with the decline and fall of classical Greece.

The gradual darkening of the Grecian peoples was noted by many famous writers of the time. By the time of the Roman emperor, Octavian Augustus (who reigned directly after Julius Caesar), the Roman historian Manilius counted the Greeks among the dark nations of the world, referring to them as part of the "colorate gentes."[11]

It is likely that Manilius was referring to the Hellenistic world in general, rather than the inhabitants of the Greek peninsula alone. This Hellenistic world included all the former Greek colonies in Anatolia, which from the time of the Persian invasions onward, would have had substantial numbers of Middle Eastern genetic input.

The presence of even more racially foreign slaves—Africans—in Classical Greece is, however, attested to by the fact that there are numerous references to black Africans in Classical Greek art, almost always portraying them as slaves. Vases in the form of African[12] slave heads were particularly popular, and dozens of examples of this art form have been found at Greek sites from Italy through to mainland Greece. The great number of such images (only a small representative sample is shown here, see previous page) and their prevalence during the middle to late Hellenistic period confirms that Africans constituted a significant minority element in the population at that time.

Depictions of "Ethiopians" as athletes and entertainers are another indication that they were not just slaves but also freemen. More importantly, these artifacts demonstrate that the slave trade in foreigners was an important part of Classical Greece's slave industry. In line with the historical truth that all civilizations that use foreigners to do their work, the huge slave population (see figures above) and their dispersed origins must have had an impact on the population makeup.

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[11] Manilius, *Astronomica*, iv, 719.

[12] Or as the Greeks called them, Ethiopians, after the Greek "Aithiopia," a compound of two Greek words "aíthō,"("burn") and "ops," ("face"). There is still a country in northeast Africa with the name Ethiopia.

HIMERA GRAVEYARD REVEALS VAST GENETIC DIVERSITY IN GREEK ARMY IN SICILY

Genetic testing on skeletons found in a military graveyard from 480 BC in the Greek colony of Sicily revealed that the Greeks were using soldiers from all over Europe and North Africa.

Greek Military Graveyard in Sicily Reveals Foreign Genetic Input

A 2022 genetic study[13] carried out on the remains of soldiers who served in the Greek army in Sicily from the year 480 BC has revealed the extent of the foreign influx into Greek society.

DNA analysis, conducted on skeletons found in a military graveyard at the site of the Greek colony of Himera in northern Sicily, revealed that they displayed genetics common with people from all over Europe (north and south), Russia, the Steppe, Anatolia, Egypt, and present-day Turkey and Iran.

Of these groups, the Egyptian, Iranian, and likely the Anatolian (which was in present-day Turkey) samples would all have introduced non-European genetics into the mix.

DNA Evidence Indicates Admixture in Greece "55 Generations Ago"

Studies on the genetic composition of the population of present-day Greece have revealed a significantly diverse origin,[14] with no fewer than 20 different Y-Haplogroups (J2; R1b; G; E3b; J1; R1a; I; L; N; K; Q; C; R2; H; A; E3; R1; E3a; J; and O), including some which are clearly not of European origin. Determining the origin of the non-European input on a genetic level in Greece is complicated by two factors:

— Firstly, the archaic populations of Greece, and in particular the "Early European Farmers" (EEF) from Anatolia, had haplogroups that have since become more common in the mixed-race population of the Middle East, a development that has obscured the exact time of differentiation; and

— Secondly, the mixed-race Ottoman Turks ruled Greece and the Balkans for over 400 years, leaving behind a genetic footprint that is equally difficult to differentiate on a genetic level from archaic and "modern" inputs.

A DNA study carried out in 2011[15] provided some perspective on this issue. Focusing specifically on the question of whether there had been any Sub-Saharan genetic input into Southern Europe (including Greece), and, more importantly, when this happened, the study detected no African genetic signatures in Northern European populations but did find "a distinct presence of African ancestry in Southern European, Middle Eastern, and Jewish populations."

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[13] "The diverse genetic origins of a Classical period Greek army," Reitsema, L. J., *PNAS Genetics,* October 3, 2022, 119 (41) e2205272119.

[14] For details of this diversity, see "Standing at the Gateway to Europe: The Genetic Structure of Western Balkan Populations Based on Autosomal and Haploid Markers," Kovacevic, L., et al., *PLOS ONE,* August 22, 2014; "Y-chromosomal evidence for a limited Greek contribution to the Pathan population of Pakistan," Firasat, S., et al., *European Journal of Human Genetics,* 2007 Jan; 15(1): 121–126; "Clinal patterns of human Y chromosomal diversity in continental Italy and Greece are dominated by drift and founder effects," Di Giacomo, F., et al., *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution,* Volume 28, Issue 3, September 2003, Pages 387–395; "Differential Y-chromosome Anatolian Influences on the Greek and Cretan Neolithic," King, J., et al., *Annals of Human Genetics,* Volume 72, Issue 2, March 2008, Pages 205–214; "Origin, Diffusion, and Differentiation of Y-Chromosome Haplogroups E and J: Inferences on the Neolithization of Europe and Later Migratory Events in the Mediterranean Area," Semino. O., et al., *American Journal of Human Genetics,* Vol, 4, Issue 5, pp. 1023–1034, May 2004; and others.

[15] "The History of African Gene Flow into Southern Europeans, Levantines, and Jews," Moorjani P. et al., *PLoS Genetics,* 2011; 7 (4): e1001373.

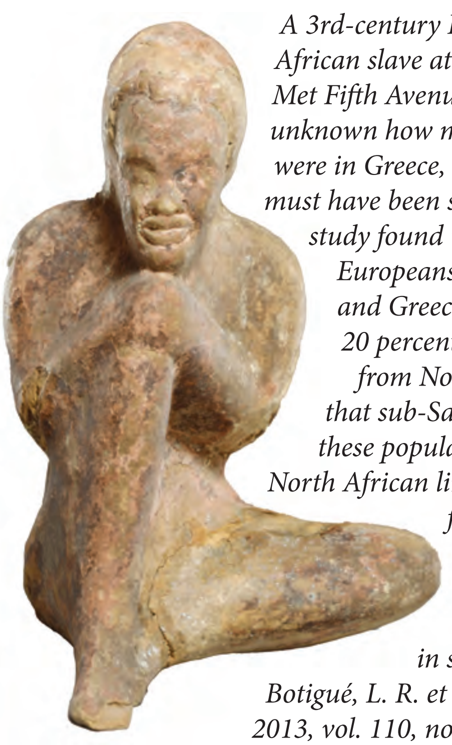
It went on to state that "modern southern European groups can attribute about 1 to 3 percent of their genetic signature to African ancestry, with the intermingling of populations dating back 55 generations, on average."

This would, if correct, place the admixture at approximately the Roman era. It is likely that the admixture occurred slightly earlier, given that the Roman slave trading period was characterized by slave importations into Italy rather than into its colonies.

Nonetheless, this study effectively demonstrated that there had been cross-Mediterranean gene flow in the Classical period—something that is in perfect accord with the historical record as outlined above.

By 300 BC or so, it is clear that the civilization known as Classical Greece had exhausted itself. A combination of internecine warfare, which drastically reduced its original population, and the influx of large numbers of foreigners brought in as slaves, had steadily weakened the Greeks to the point where they were unable to withstand the next invasion from the North: the Macedonians.

AFRICAN SLAVE AT REST, 3rd CENTURY BC



A 3rd-century BC statuette of an African slave at rest, Athens. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York). It is unknown how many foreign slaves were in Greece, but their numbers must have been substantial. A 2013 study found that "Southwestern Europeans from Italy, Spain and Greece have been 4 and 20 percent of their genomes from North Africa," and that sub-Saharan ancestry in these populations came from North African lineage. ("Gene flow from North Africa contributes to differential human genetic diversity in southern Europe," Botigué, L. R. et al., PNAS, *July 16, 2013, vol. 110, no. 29, 11791–11796).*

Macedonian Rule Marks End of "Classical Greece"

North of all the Greek City-States stood the kingdom of Macedonia, whose royal house claimed direct descent from the Dorians. While this claim has never been conclusively proven, it, along with some crucial differences between the Macedonians and other Greeks, caused an unbridgeable rift to develop between the two groups.

This division was further exacerbated when the Persian King Darius I initiated the Greco-Persian War. Facing an overwhelming invasion force, the Macedonians agreed to become vassals of the Persians and were compelled to provide troops for the second Persian invasion of Greece under Xerxes I in 480–479 BC.

Only after the Persians withdrew from Europe did Macedonia regain its independence, but the memory of their assistance to the invaders remained deeply ingrained in the consciousness of the Greek city-states to the south. Unlike other Greek states, Macedonia did not have the huge numbers of slaves that characterized its southern neighbors and thus managed to avoid the racial problems that arose from that policy.

As a result, by the late 3rd century BC, it had become the most homogeneous Greek state in the Balkans.

"No Decent Slaves in Macedonia": Demosthenes

Athens's most famous orator, Demosthenes, famously declared in one of his polemics against the Macedonians, that it was not possible to buy a slave in that country: "...not only no Greek, nor related to the Greeks, but not even a barbarian from any place that can be named with honors, but a pestilent knave from Macedonia, whence it was never yet possible to buy a decent slave." [16]

Utilizing this power and capitalizing on the weakness of its southern neighbors, the Macedonians invaded all of mainland Greece during the reign of its king Philip II (359–336 BC). Subsequently, Macedonia became the dominant power in all of Greece. The Macedonian conquest is considered the end of the era of Classical Greece.

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[16] Demosthenes, 341 BC, *Third Philippic,* 31.

Chapter 12: Reshaping the Known World— Macedon and Alexander

To the north of the city-states of ancient Greece lay the land known to them as Μακεδονία (Makedonía), a word which originally meant “the tall ones”[1] — a name which is perhaps not without significance given the dispute over the exact origins of the Macedonians.

While the exact origins of the Macedonians are unknown—and, as a result, heavily disputed—but there can be little doubt that they were considered outsiders by the rest of ancient Greece. They only really first appeared in the historical records around 700 BC, nearly a thousand years *after* the Mycenaean invasion of the Grecian peninsula.

The first Macedonian kingdom—or organized state—was only established around 400 BC, and their first king of note, Amyntas III, who reigned from circa 393 to 369 BC, was the first to establish defined borders for his state, concentrated on the plains of what is today the modern province of Macedonia in Greece.

There, he and his sons started the first large Macedonian cities which would later become famous: Aigai, the original capital, and Pella, the subsequent capital. Amyntas’s third son, Philip II, came to the throne in 359 BC, and it is from that date onward that Macedon began to assert itself in the affairs of ancient Greece.

Philip II: The Conqueror of Greece

By the time Philip II became king of Macedonia, the Greek city-states had been weakened significantly due to the 27-year-long Peloponnesian War among themselves and the mass importation of foreign slaves. They were therefore mere shadows of their former power, and this situation allowed the Macedonians—who had not succumbed to either of these two challenges—to easily dominate all of Greece.

PHILIP II, KING OF MACEDON

A sculpture of the face of Macedonian king Philip II (382–336 BC), as discovered in his tomb, provides an accurate reflection of his appearance. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).

At the time of Philip II’s ascension to the throne, Macedonia faced threats of invasion from three sides. Two groups of Indo-European tribes, the Illyrians and the Paeonians, were advancing south from their bases in the present-day nations of Albania and Bulgaria, respectively, while the Greek city-state of Athens had established a powerful colony on the eastern borders of Macedonia.

Understanding that he was not powerful enough to confront all these threats directly, Philip II sought peace treaties with all the threatening powers, making territorial concessions such as acknowledging Athenian control over the eastern seaboard around the future city of Amphipolis.

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[1] A term which significantly originally meant “the tall ones.” The word comes from the proto-Indo-European root “mak-” and “makednos,” meaning “long, tall.”

However, Philip II had his own plans. An often-overlooked military genius, he reformed the Macedonian army, bolstered its ranks, and introduced military innovations such as the "sarissa," a pike nearly twice as long as the longest Greek spear, and innovative heavy infantry formations and tactics. Many of the strategies Philip II devised would later be emulated and adapted by the Roman armies, with whom they have become most associated.

Philip II Moves against His Enemies, 358 BC

By 358 BC, Philip II was finally powerful enough to act against his enemies. In that year, he invaded Paeonia and neutralized the military threat posed by the Paeonians through a swift invasion of their territory. The Illyrians, likely surprised by the decisive Paeonian defeat—Macedonia's first display of superior weaponry and tactics—then retreated of their own accord.

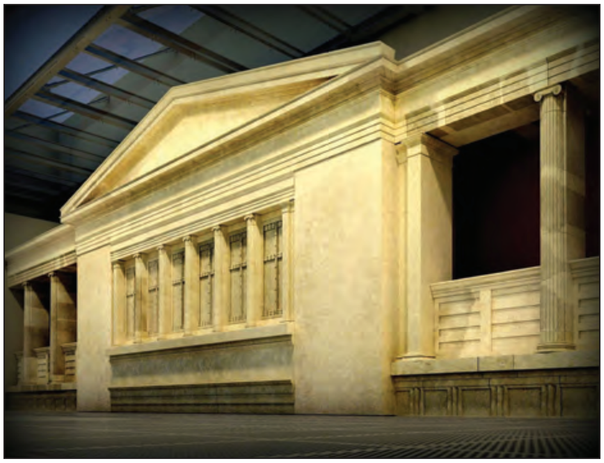
Philip II's subsequent move was to secure Macedonia's western border, adjacent to the state of Epirus.[2] To achieve this, he employed tactical diplomacy: he married Olympias, a princess from one of the Greek tribes. The child she bore for Philip was named Alexander.

Emboldened by his successes, Philip then confronted the Athenian empire. In a rapid military campaign, he reclaimed the city of Amphipolis. He then pressed further east along what is today the northern Greek coastline, but was then a settlement established by an Indo-European tribe known as the Thracians.

The Thracians had established a modest settlement named Thracian Crenides, near the mountain of Panggaion, which boasted rich gold veins. Philip II's seasoned army captured the town in 356 BC and subsequently renamed it Philippi.[3]

By this time, it was evident that Macedonia was the foremost power in Greece. The Greek city-states, or what was left of them, united against Macedonia but struggled to challenge the emerging northern powerhouse.

PALACE OF PHILIP II AT AIGAI, 350 BC



A reconstruction of the façade of the Royal Palace of Philip II, located in the Macedonian city of Aigai and built around 350 BC, stands as a testament to its grandeur. At the time of its construction, it was the single largest building in Greece. The reconstruction draws from archaeological evidence discovered at the city's ruins and from contemporary descriptions. (New Aigai Museum. Vergina Macedonia, Greece).

Undaunted, Philip II captured the city of Methone in 354 BC, the last significant stronghold along the northern Greek coastline still under Athenian control.

"Sacred War" Spurs Further Macedonian Expansion

The outbreak of a "sacred war" among several Greek city-states (due to land disputes and a refusal to pay homage; the war also involved the capture of Delphi by the city-state of Phocia and the plundering of its treasury to fund mercenary armies) provided Philip II an opportunity to redirect his forces south.

Aligning with the Thessalian League of city-states (an alliance spearheaded by the city-state of Thebes), Philip II's forces defeated the Phocians at the Battle of Crocus Field in 352 BC. Consequently, he gained control of all of Thessaly, a vast region of northern Greece still recognized by that name today. With this acquisition, Macedonia became the most expansive state on the Greek mainland.

His next target was the peninsula of Chalcidice in 348 BC, the remaining section of northeastern

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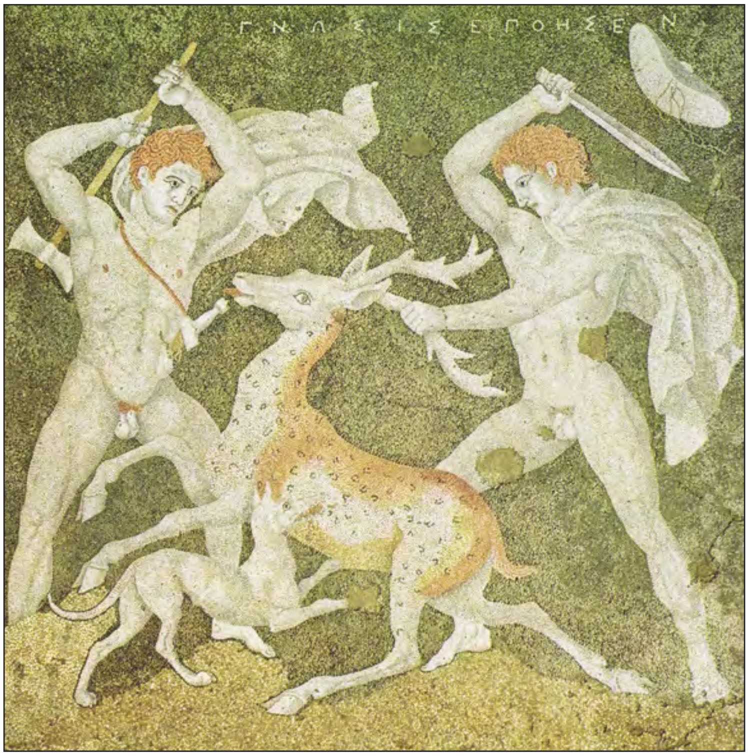
[2] This small but powerful nation would later achieve fame through its General Pyrrhus, who fought the Romans in what became known as the Pyrrhic Wars of 280-275 BC.

[3] This city would later become more famous as a site of one of the early Christian Apostle Paul's missionary works, and the origin of the Christian bible's book of Philippians.

PELLA: BIRTH PLACE OF PHILIP II AND ALEXANDER THE GREAT



Above: Part of the extensive archaeological site of Pella, Macedonia, the second capital city of Macedon. Both Philip II and Alexander the Great were born here. Right: The "Stag Hunt mosaic," dating from around 300 BC, was found in one of the houses at Pella. It is valuable for its portrayal of the racial types of the hunters, and it has been suggested that the figure on the right might represent Alexander the Great. (Archaeological Museum of Pella, Macedonia, Greece).

Greece outside the expanding Macedonian territory. Simultaneously, he seized significant portions of lands inhabited by the Illyrians, thereby extending Macedonia's northern frontier. In 346 BC, Philip II played a pivotal role in concluding the Sacred War. Simultaneously, he entered a peace agreement with Athens, terminating the decade-long dispute over the northeastern coastline's dominion.

Athens Declares War on Macedonia, 340 BC

The peace was not to last very long. In 342 BC, Philip II launched a series of campaigns to conquer the remaining parts of Thrace not yet under his control. This move prompted two of his allies, the cities of Perinthus (later called Heraclea) and Byzantium (later called Constantinople), to sever their alliance and prompted Athens to formally declare war on Macedonia in 340 BC.

The Macedonian army, now equipped with new siege machinery, besieged both Perinthus and Byzantium. However, they were unsuccessful in breaching the walls and subsequently retreated. Philip II then redirected his substantial army southwards to confront the rejuvenated Athenian forces, now allied with the Theban army, in light of Macedonia's escalating influence.

Decisive Macedonian Victory at Battle of Chaeronea, 338 BC

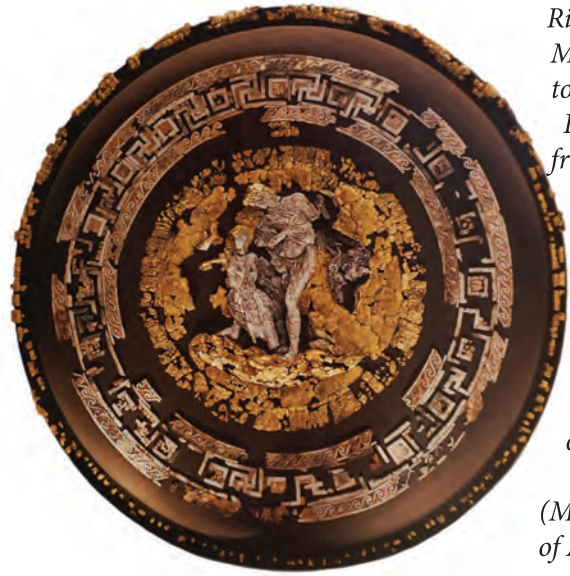
The two opposing forces clashed at the settlement known as Kópraina, now referred to as Chaeronea. In this intense confrontation, during which Philip II's young son, Alexander, played a pivotal role, the Athenian troops were decisively defeated and repelled.

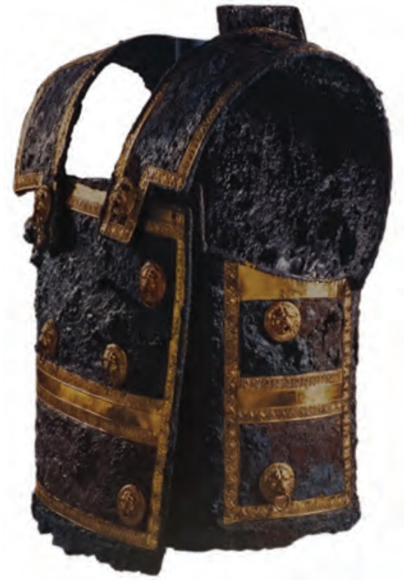
The magnitude of this defeat exposed the fragility of the Greek city-states. The conflict concluded on that battlefield, with the once-mighty Athens and Thebes capitulating entirely. Subsequently, all other Greek states—with the exception of Sparta—conceded to Philip II's dominion, allying with him for an imminent war against their archenemy, the Persian Empire.

The League of Corinth, 337 BC, Unites Greece under Macedonia

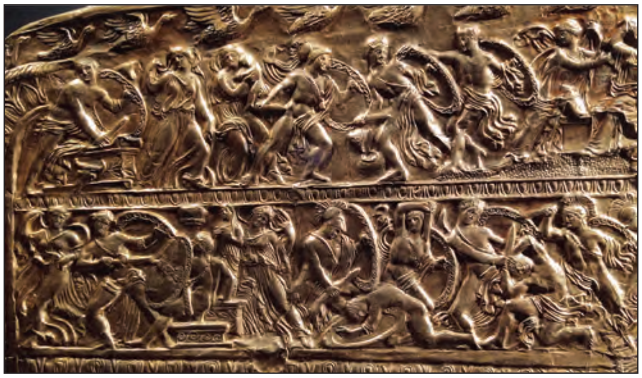
To consolidate the Greek states for his intended campaign against the Persian Empire, Philip II founded the League of Corinth in 337 BC. This alliance was devised to foster enduring peace among the Greek city-states. Its inaugural assembly, convened in Corinth—hence the name—witnessed every Greek state, barring Sparta, pledge allegiance

PHILIPP II'S ARMOR AND WEAPONS FOUND IN HIS TOMB





Right: The body armor from Macedonian king Philip II's tomb, found intact in 1977. Left: The shield recovered from Philip II's tomb, inlaid with an intricate "Greek key" pattern and two figures. The weapons and other items found in his tomb, many in perfect condition, offer valuable insights into the daily life of Macedonian royalty in the late 4th century BC. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).



Above: A close-up view of the detail on the exterior of Philip II of Macedon's quiver (referred to as a gortyos) showcases detailed representations of the racial types of that era. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).

to maintain peace by adhering to a comprehensive constitution formulated by Philip II.

This constitution established a council of delegates from all states, authorized to intervene should peace be compromised or imperiled. Once a resolution was ratified within this council, member states were obligated to deploy troops or vessels to the League's leader—Philip II—as mandated. Essentially, this signified Greece's political integration under Macedonian stewardship.

The League ardently backed Philip II's war strategy against the Persians. Even the Athenians, who had previously been vehement critics of the Macedonians, eagerly anticipated avenging their city's devastation by the Persians in 480 BC.

Philip II Assassinated; Alexander Ascends the Throne

As plans for the colossal war against the Persians were being formulated, Philip II met an unexpected end: he was assassinated during a celebration in his native city of Aigai, amidst his own populace. His assailant, a disgruntled young Macedonian noble, fatally attacked him in broad daylight before countless onlookers.

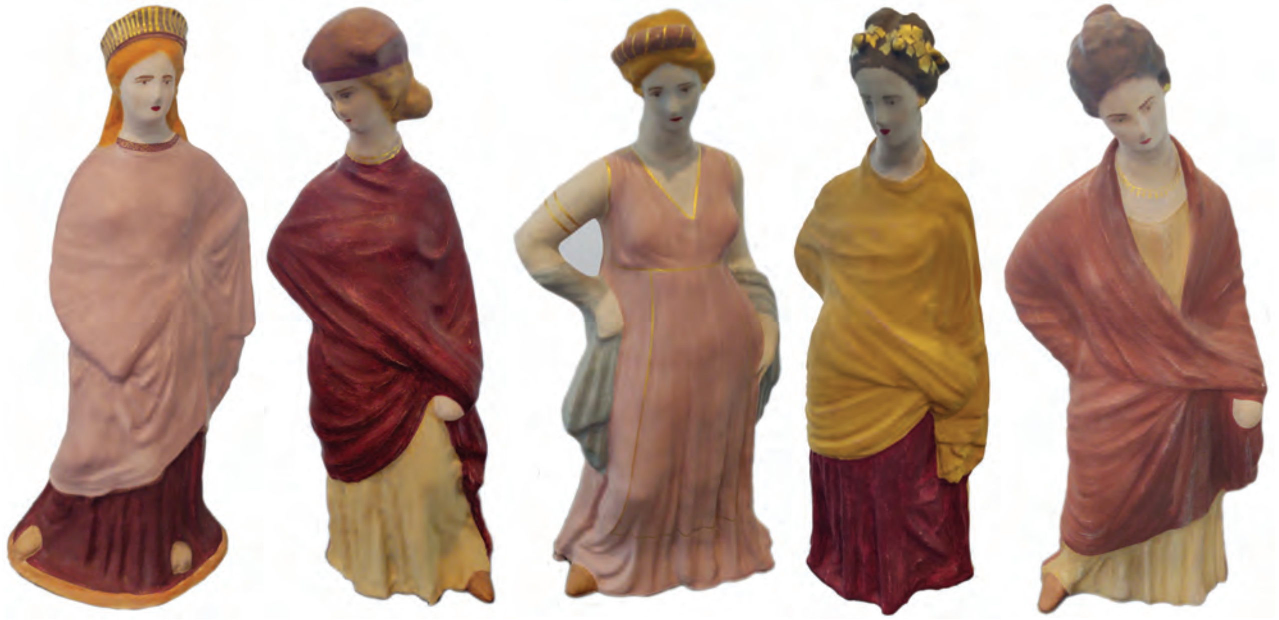
Philip II's offspring, Alexander, ascended as Alexander III. Despite Philip's remarkable accomplishments, Alexander's forthcoming endeavors would eclipse even his father's legacy. However, first and foremost, Philip II's ceremonial burial was imperative.

He was interred in a mausoleum outside Aigai. Over time, the tomb's whereabouts faded from memory, only to be rediscovered in 1977. When unearthed that year, it was undisturbed, and the artifacts it housed have captivated audiences ever since.

Alexander III Enters History as "The Great"

Alexander, who was born in the Macedonian city of Pella in 356 BC, was tutored from a young age by the famous Aristotle. The young Alexander must have been precocious, as he was left in charge of Macedonia at the age of just 16 while his father led the attempted siege on Byzantium. He also won fame by leading an army that achieved a significant victory over the Maedi Thracians, and at the

COLOR RECONSTRUCTIONS FROM THE GRAVES OF PELLA, 3rd CENTURY

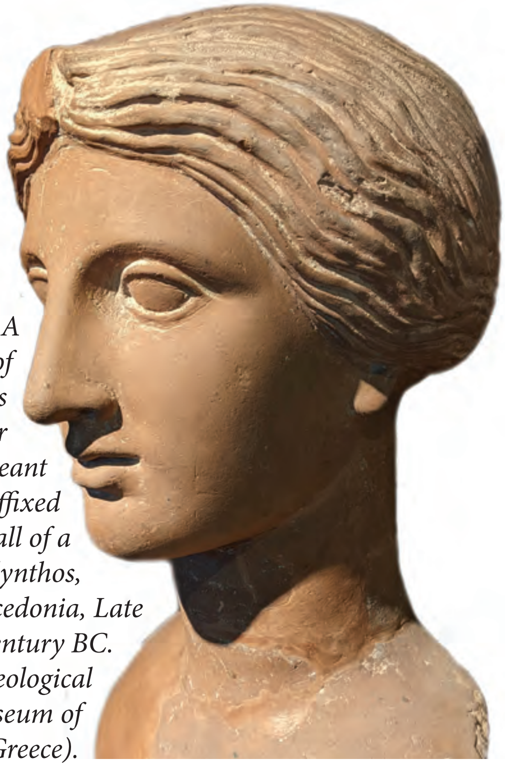


Pella, the birthplace of Alexander the Great in Macedonia, is a significant archaeological site with numerous intriguing discoveries. Among these finds in the graveyards, a series of clay figurines were unearthed that represented the people interred at the site. Upon detailed analysis, it was determined that the figurines preserved remnants of their original paint. Utilizing computer graphics and 3-D printing technology, the Archaeological Museum of Pella recreated precise replicas of the figures as they likely appeared when initially buried. This undertaking is invaluable as the figurines depict the physical characteristics of the Pella inhabitants during that era. All originate from the eastern cemetery of Pella, 3rd century BC. (Archaeological Museum of Pella, Greece).

TOMB GUARDIAN, AMPHIPOLIS, 300 BC

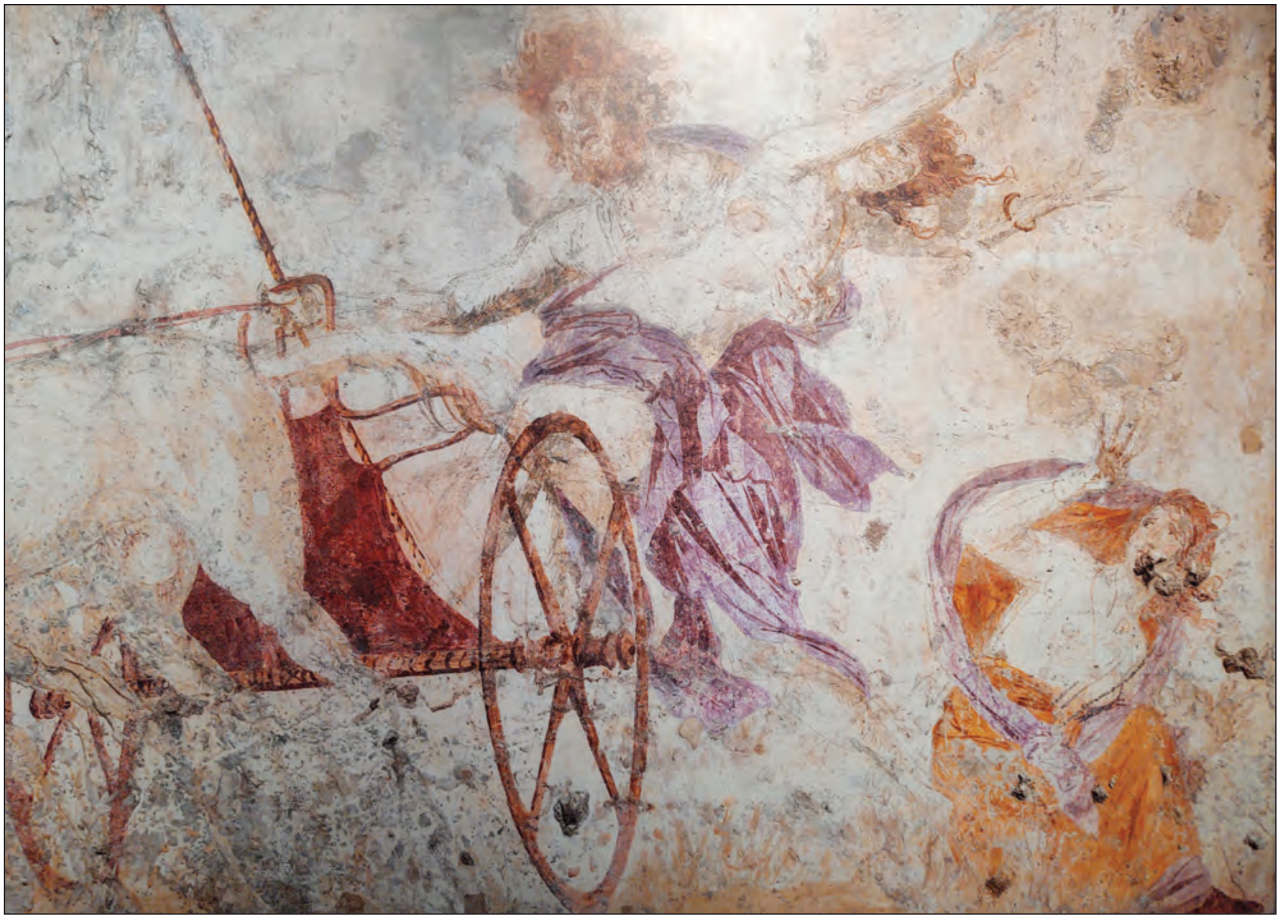
Left: A broken-off head from a marble statue, one of a pair that adorned the entrance of a grand 4th century B.C. tomb at Amphipolis in Macedonia, northern Greece. (Archaeological Museum of Amphipolis, Amfipoli, Macedonia, Greece).

GODDESS DEMETER IN MACEDON HOUSE, 400 BC

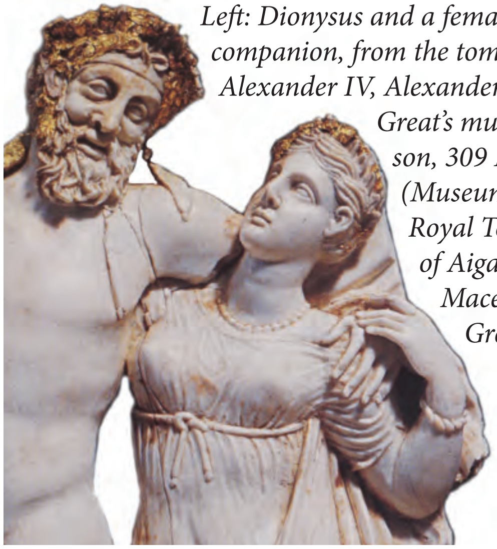


Right: A clay bust of the goddess Demeter was meant to be affixed to the wall of a house. Olynthos, Macedonia, Late 5th century BC. (Archaeological Museum of Aegina, Greece).

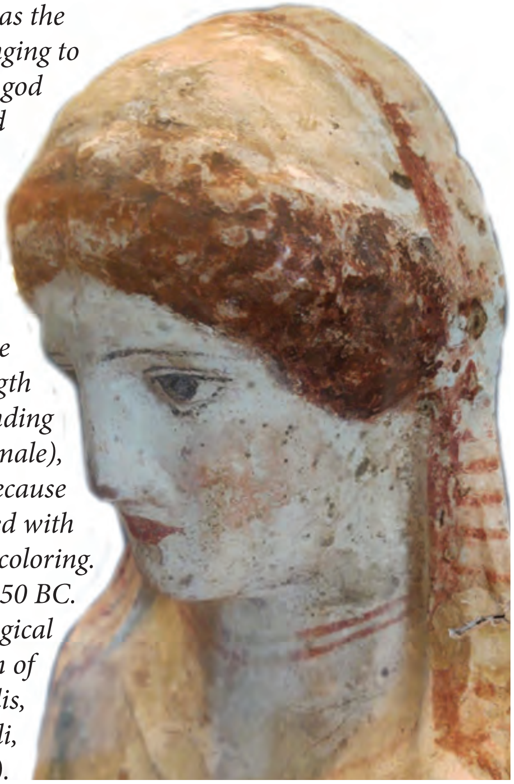
BLOND-HAIRED GODS IN MACEDONIAN TOMB, 336 BC



Above: The north wall of "Tomb 1", located in the same complex as the burial chamber of Philip II near Aigai, Macedonia—possibly belonging to one of his wives—features a splendid mural of the legend of Pluto, god of the underworld, kidnapping Persephone. The god, goddess, and the goddess's companion are depicted with light red-blond hair. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).

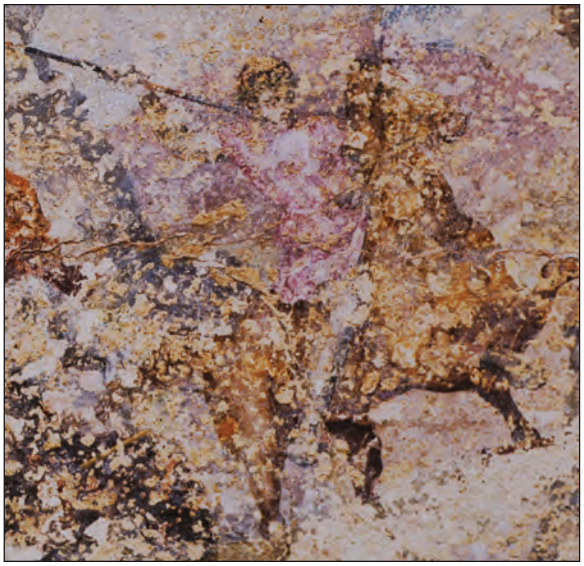


Left: Dionysus and a female companion, from the tomb of Alexander IV, Alexander the Great's murdered son, 309 BC. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).



Right: A bust of a Macedonian Kore statue (a full-length free-standing statue of a female), significant because it was preserved with its original coloring. Dated to 350 BC. (Archaeological Museum of Amphipolis, Amfipoli, Macedonia).

THE FACE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT: IMAGES MADE DURING HIS LIFETIME



Left: The sole color depiction of Alexander the Great made during his life, illustrating him with blond hair, originates from a fresco that portrays a hunting scene on the tomb of his father Philip II (382–336 BC). Right: A sculpture of Alexander the Great's face was found in the tomb of his father, Phillip II. Both these images will have been seen by Alexander in person, as they are the only ones confirmed to have been created during his lifetime. (Museum of the Royal Tombs of Aigai, Macedonia, Greece).

ALEXANDER BUST, 300 BC

A bust of Alexander the Great, dating back to approximately 300 BC, unearthed in the city of Alexandria, Egypt. The likeness to the bust found in his father's tomb (above right) is remarkable. (British Museum, London).

Battle of Chaeronea, where he personally led a detachment that defeated the famous "Sacred Band of Thebes," one of the elite units of the Theban army.

Though still young—just 20 when he became king—Alexander quickly took charge of the affairs of state, and was confirmed as the new leader by a reconvened League of Corinth. On the way home, he advanced so far north that he crossed the Danube to disperse two other Indo-European tribes, the Triballi and the Getae. He then immediately drove his army on to defeat a renewed invasion from the Illyrians.

The Razing of Thebes, 335 BC

While busy in the north, a rebellion broke out in Greece, started by the Thebans who still smarted from their defeat at his hands only three years earlier. Making his army of nearly 40,000 men march 17 miles per day, Alexander reached the city of Thebes from the north in just two weeks in 335 BC, and conquered the rebellious city once and for all. He ordered the entire city razed to the ground, sparing only the temples and the house of the famous poet Pindar.

According to the accounts, at least 6,000 Thebans were killed in this action, and all the survivors, said to be in the region of 30,000 people, were sold into slavery. Thebes was utterly destroyed and was only reconstructed as a city in 315 BC.

The severity of the assault and the reprisals quelled all further attempts at rebellion among the other Greek states, and Alexander was not again to suffer a rebellion on this scale.

Alexander Turns East, 334 BC

With Greece firmly under control, Alexander now turned against the enemy that he and his father always had in mind: the Persian Empire, which had, for hundreds of years, been waging war first against the colonies in Ionia (on the present-day Turkish east coast) and then had invaded all of Greece before being driven out.

Alexander drew together his mightiest army yet, and in the year 334 BC he crossed into what is today the state of Turkey with a force of over 35,000 men, leaving his most faithful general Antipater in charge of Macedonia (and therefore Greece).

This army was like no other seen to that time: combining light infantry, heavy cavalry, archers, and employing the famed infantry phalanx formations, with their remarkable 13-foot spears and shields. In addition, Alexander brought surveyors, engineers, architects, scientists, court officials, and even historians with the army. It was his intention from the start to colonize, not just invade.

Battle of Granicus, 334 BC

The Persian king Darius III, Alexander's first stop was the city of Ilium (otherwise known as Troy), then he attacked the first Persian army sent against him, at the Granicus River near the Sea of Marmara in June 334 BC. The Persian forces were routed, and thousands of Greek mercenaries serving with the Persian forces were executed out of hand.

The victory caused a great many cities in Ionia and western Asia Minor to declare themselves friendly to the Macedonian forces, and in one fell swoop, Alexander added the area that is today the western part of Turkey to Macedonia's empire. Only the cities of Miletus and Halicarnassus offered resistance: Alexander stormed both settlements and took them through a combination of force and local sympathizers.

The Legend of the Gordian Knot

As Alexander's armies advanced even further east, conquering all the cities to Gordion (the capital of the then state of Phrygia) in what is today the central part of present-day Turkey. The Gordian Knot, according to the legend, was a complex knot that tied an oxcart, and whoever could untie it would be destined to rule Asia. The legend went on to claim that when challenged to try his hand at untying the knot, Alexander unexpectedly just cut it with his sword rather than trying to unpick it. Ever since this legend was started, the phrase "untying the Gordian Knot" has meant an unexpected method of bypassing seemingly intractable problems.

The Battle of Issus, 333 BC

As Alexander drew ever nearer to the borders of Persia itself, the Persian King Darius III advanced westward with his greatest army yet. The two sides met in combat in 333 BC at Issus, a plain on the coast of the Gulf of İskenderun, in present-day southern Turkey, just to the west of the Syrian border. Despite the Persian army being far larger than that of Alexander's (some sources claim the Persian forces numbered over half a million), the Macedonians once again decisively defeated Darius. The Persian king fled, leaving his family in Alexander's hands. To their surprise, they were treated with chivalry.

"ALEXANDER SARCOPHAGUS" 312 BC

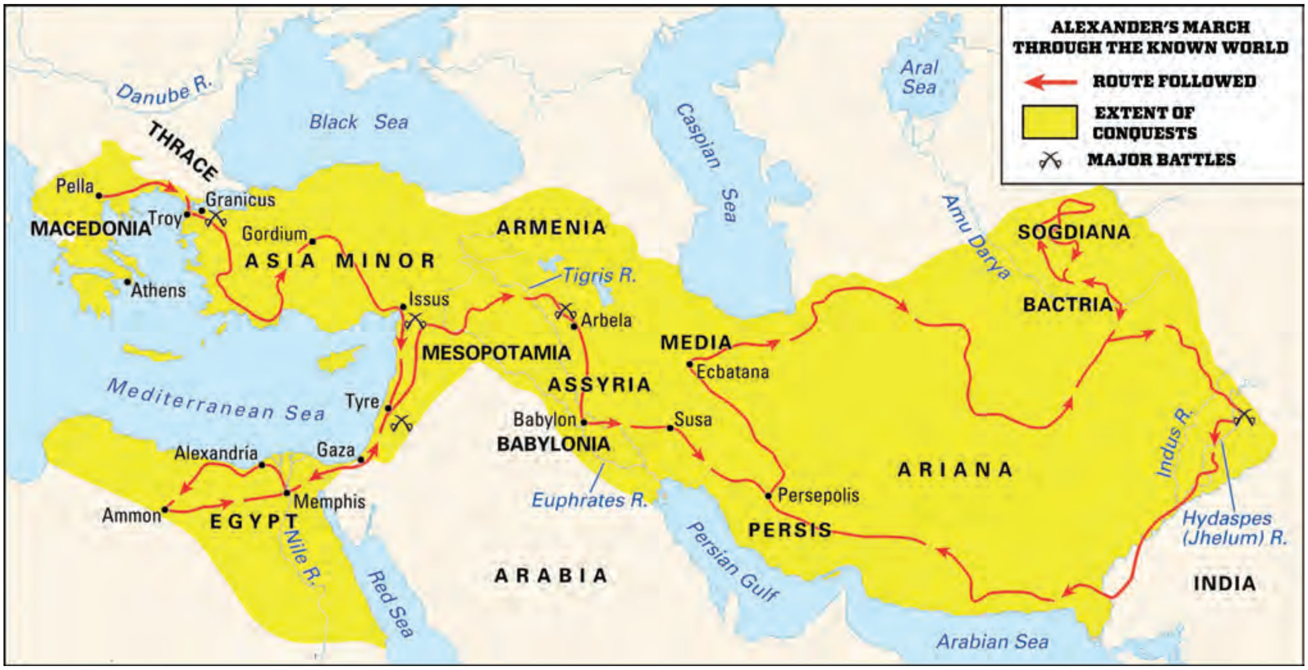
A detail from the 312 BC "Alexander Sarcophagus," showing Alexander in battle. (Istanbul Archaeology Museum, Istanbul, Turkey).

From Issus, Alexander marched his army directly into what is today Syria and Lebanon, with the intention of cutting off the Persian navy from its Mediterranean Sea bases.

The Siege and Storming of Tyre, 332 BC

The city of Tyre, a city, which bears that name to the present day in the state of Lebanon, was originally an island a third of a mile (half a kilometer) off the coast. The city had powerful defenses, with walls over 160 feet (50 meters) high. It was considered impregnable and had successfully warded off attacks from a number of armies, including a 13-year long siege by the forces of the Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar.

The city was, however, important to Alexander, as it was the last harbor being used by the Persian


ALEXANDER'S MARCH THROUGH THE KNOWN WORLD
ROUTE FOLLOWED
EXTENT OF CONQUESTS
MAJOR BATTLES
Danube R.
Black Sea
Aral Sea
Caspian Sea
Amu Darya
THRACE
Pella
Granicus
Troy
MACEDONIA
Gordium
ASIA MINOR
Athens
ARMENIA
Tigris R.
Issus
Arbela
MESOPOTAMIA
MEDIA
Ecbatana
ASSYRIA
SOGDIANA
BACTRIA
Mediterranean Sea
Tyre
Babylon
BABYLONIA
Susa
Alexandria
Gaza
Memphis
Ammon
EGYPT
Nile R.
Euphrates R.
Persepolis
PERSIS
ARIANA
Indus R.
Hydaspes (Jhelum) R.
INDIA
Red Sea
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
Arabian Sea

fleet. At first, Alexander attempted negotiations, but when his peace messengers were killed and their bodies thrown over the city walls into the sea, he decided that force was the only option.

Using a "Gordian knot" approach, the Macedonian king ordered the construction of a land bridge to be built across the 7 feet deep (two meters) waterway, with stones and soil being literally carried into the sea to create a road to the city walls. To protect the work, Alexander ordered the construction of two siege towers, each higher than the city walls.

The Tyrians waged a desperate resistance against the building of the causeway, which included an ingenious attack upon the siege towers with a burning ship. Alexander responded by using ships provided from his allies to barricade the city's two harbors, and after seven months, the causeway reached the city walls. These walls were probed with battering rams until a weak spot was found, and once broken down, the Macedonians quickly captured the city. The last Persian port was gone, and their navy played no further role in the war.

By now, the Macedonian forces had reached Damascus, and there they seized the main war treasury of King Darius. Sensing defeat, the Persian king then offered peace in a letter directed to Alexander. The Macedonian king's famous reply dismissed the offer, pointing out the endless invasions of Europe which the Persians had carried out, and instead demanded unconditional surrender. In response, Darius III sent a new offer: he would pay a huge ransom of 10,000 talents for his family and cede all his lands west of the Euphrates River to the Macedonians. Alexander refused this as well.

Alexander Invades Egypt, 332 BC

Leaving one of his generals in charge of the Macedonian forces in Syria, Alexander then struck south almost without opposition until he reached Egypt in November 332 BC. The Persian governor surrendered, and Alexander was welcomed as a savior by the local population.

He spent several months in Egypt, apparently taken with what remained of that land's ancient civilization. While there, he ordered the founding of a new city, later named Alexandria, designed by an architect from the island of Rhose, Deinocrates. The conquest of Egypt had secured the entire eastern Mediterranean coastline for Macedonia.

Advance into Mesopotamia and the Battle of Gaugamela, 331 BC

The next year, 331 BC, Alexander had returned to Tyre and started preparing for a renewed eastward conquest into Mesopotamia. By July of that year, he reached the Euphrates River, and once again faced a new Persian army hastily assembled by King Darius.

There, on the plain of Gaugamela, located between the settlements of Nineveh and Arbela, Alexander once again—and this time, definitively—

defeated the Persians and pursued the remnants of their army for 35 miles (56 kilometers) to the gates of Arbela. Darius III, however, escaped capture once again, fleeing further east into the land known as Media, now known as Iran.

Alexander Decides on Amalgamation with the Persians

Alexander now occupied the cities of Babylon and Susa. In Babylon, Alexander first revealed his ultimate plan of amalgamating the Macedonian and Persian empires. The Persian governor of Babylon, one Mazaeus, who had surrendered the city to Alexander, was reappointed back in his position in conjunction with a Macedonian commander. In addition, Mazaeus was granted the right to "coin," or issue currency—a rare honor sparingly bestowed because of the power it granted that person.

Having re-established a government in Babylon, Alexander then pushed on over the Zagros mountains into Persia itself, stopping only briefly to defeat a half-hearted resistance put up by a local mountain tribe known as the Ouxians.

Alexander Burns the Palace of Xerxes, 330 BC

The city of Persepolis, the ceremonial capital of the Persian Empire, now fell to Alexander. He ordered the famous palace of Xerxes burned down. This was a symbol of revenge for the Persian destruction of the Parthenon in Athens 150 years earlier of the total reversal of fortune being suffered by the Persians. Many of his Greek allies now presumed the war was over. Alexander had other ideas, however, but freely dismissed the non-Macedonian element of his army and set out even further east towards what is today the city of Tehrān.

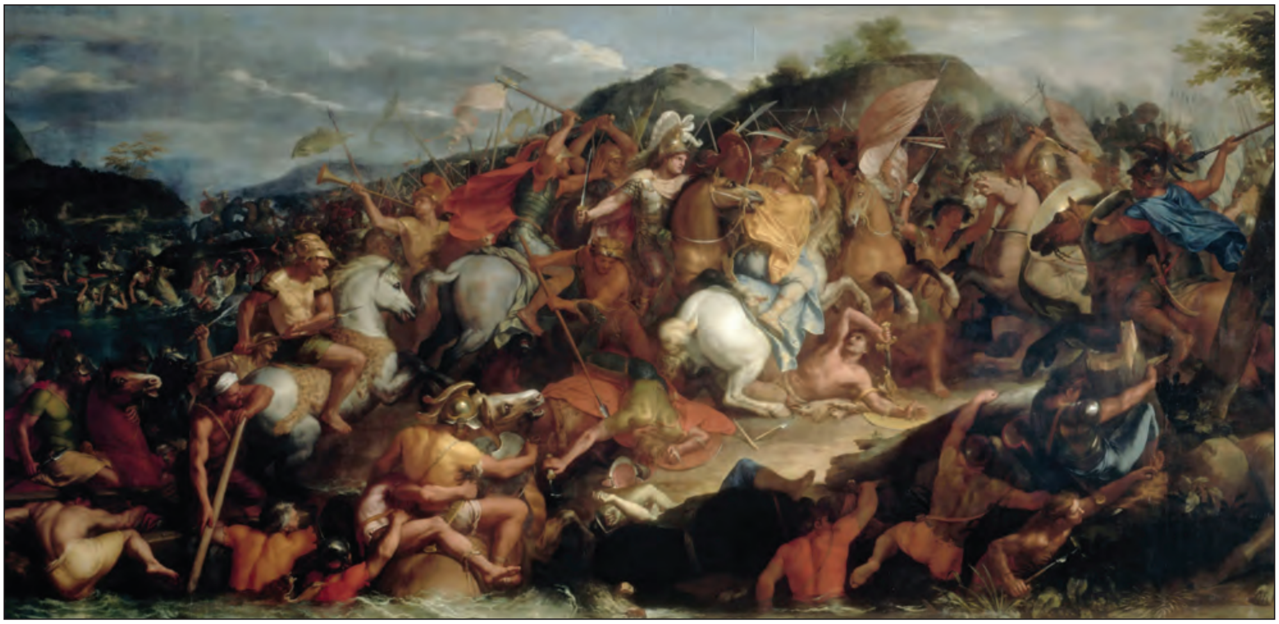
There, Alexander learned that the Persian governor of the region known as Bactria (a region today part of Northern Afghanistan, parts of southwestern Tajikistan, and southeastern Uzbekistan), one Bessus, had unilaterally deposed Darius and had claimed the throne of Persia for himself. Bessus had fatally injured Darius in a physical fight, and when Alexander heard of this, he sent for Darius's body and had it buried with all honors in the royal tombs at Persepolis.

The March into Afghanistan, 329 BC

Alexander then marched his army into what is today the country of Afghanistan, where he built a great citadel at the city of Herāt. He then turned south, first occupying the city of Phrada (near the Afghanistan city now known as Farah), and by 329 BC had reached the valley of the Helmand River, just north of the present-day border of Pakistan.

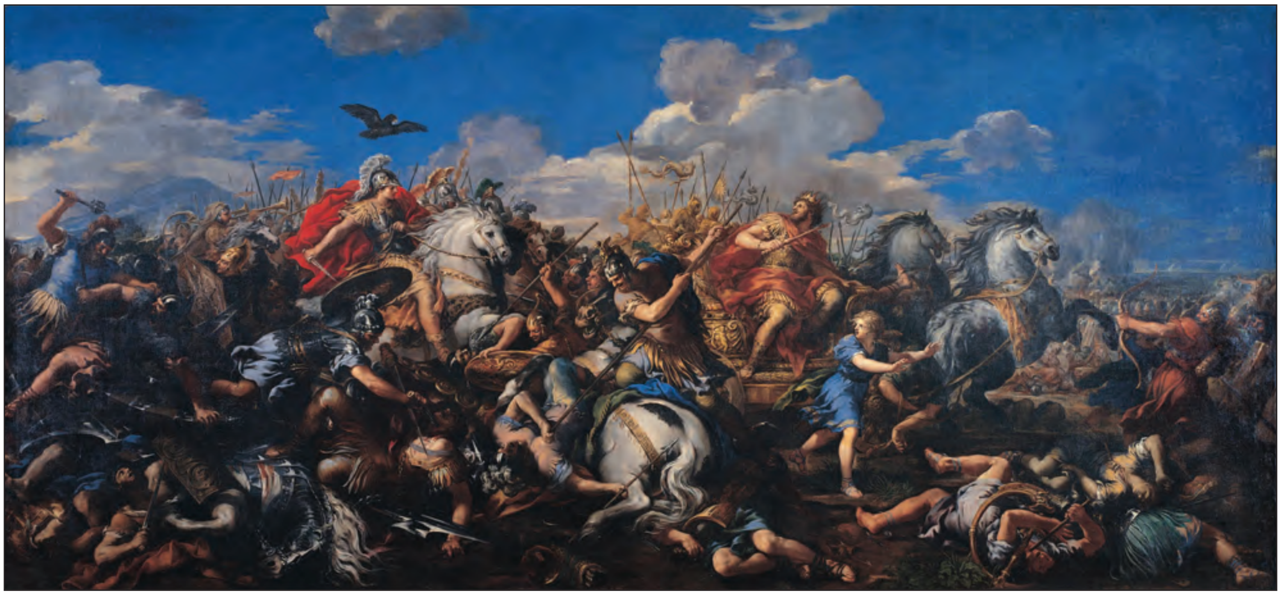
At that time, the would-be new king of Persia, Bessus, had roused some of his subjects into a re-

BATTLE OF THE GRANICUS 334 BC



The Battle of the Granicus, marking Alexander's premier triumph against the Persians, paved the way to western Asia Minor for his forces. Painting by Charles Le Brun (1619–1690).

THE BATTLE OF ISSUS 333 BC



At the Battle of Issus in 333 BC, the Persian army faced a devastating defeat by Alexander. Painting "Battle of Alexander versus Darius" by Pietro da Cortona (1596–1669).

bellion against Alexander. Alexander halted his advance south and marched his army over the Hindu Kush mountains (crossing the range which has an altitude of 11,650 feet, or 3,550 meters), and outflanked Bessus. The rebel fled beyond the Oxus River (today called the Amu Darya), but was captured by some of his own troops and handed over to Alexander, who had him executed.

Alexander Defeats Central Asian Tribes, Establishes Major Cities

Now freely operating in the region today known as northern Pakistan, Alexander set out to quell the last resistance of the local tribes, including some of the easternmost Scythians. This region marked the very easternmost boundary of the former Persian empire.

In this region, Alexander established several major cities, some of which are still in existence to the present day. On the site of the present-day city of Khujand (the second-largest city of Tajikistan), he founded a settlement he called Alexandria Eschate, or "Alexandria the farthest." Another significant settlement was Alexandria Arachosia, which is today called Kandahar in Afghanistan. In all, Alexander founded more than 20 cities, and populated each one with a small minority of Macedonians, and peoples of various racial origins he found in the area.

Alexander Invades India, 327 BC

In 327 BC, Alexander turned south and crossed the Hindu Kush once again in the direction of India. The Indians prepared to offer resistance, and Alexander sent half his army through the Khyber Pass, while he led the remainder to take the seemingly impregnable pinnacle of Aornos (today called Pir-Sar, located just a few miles west of the Indus River).

The siege of Aornos was to be Alexander's last great military encirclement. To bring his siege engines within reach of the citadel, Alexander ordered an earthwork mound to be constructed, which brought his troops to within scrambling distance of the last peak.

There, with Alexander personally in the lead, the Macedonians climbed up the last steep rockface using ropes. When they cleared the summit—overcoming boulders and all manner of projectiles being hurled down upon them—they were able to easily crush the last resistance.

Alexander's road to the Punjab was now open. In 326 BC, he crossed the Indus River. After receiving elephants and troops from the ruler of the Indian state of Taxila, named Taxiles, he marched against Taxiles' rival king, Porus, who ruled the lands between the Hydaspes (modern Jhelum) and the Acesines (modern Chenāb) rivers.

Alexander's Last Battle, Hydaspes, India, 326 BC

In June 326 BC, Alexander fought his final great battle on the banks of the Hydaspes River against King Porus of the Indian state of Paurava. This battle was the closest Alexander ever came to defeat. The likely reason was that he faced a formidable force of at least 200 Indian war elephants and that the majority of his troops were locals by this time. After an intense struggle in which both sides nearly secured victory, Porus was encircled and forced to form his infantry into a defensive block. He proposed a surrender on generous terms.

Alexander accepted, and Porus remained the king of Paurava but had to pay tribute to the Macedonian king. After this, Alexander founded two cities: Alexandria Nicaea (to commemorate his victory) and Bucephala (in honor of his horse Bucephalus, which passed away there).

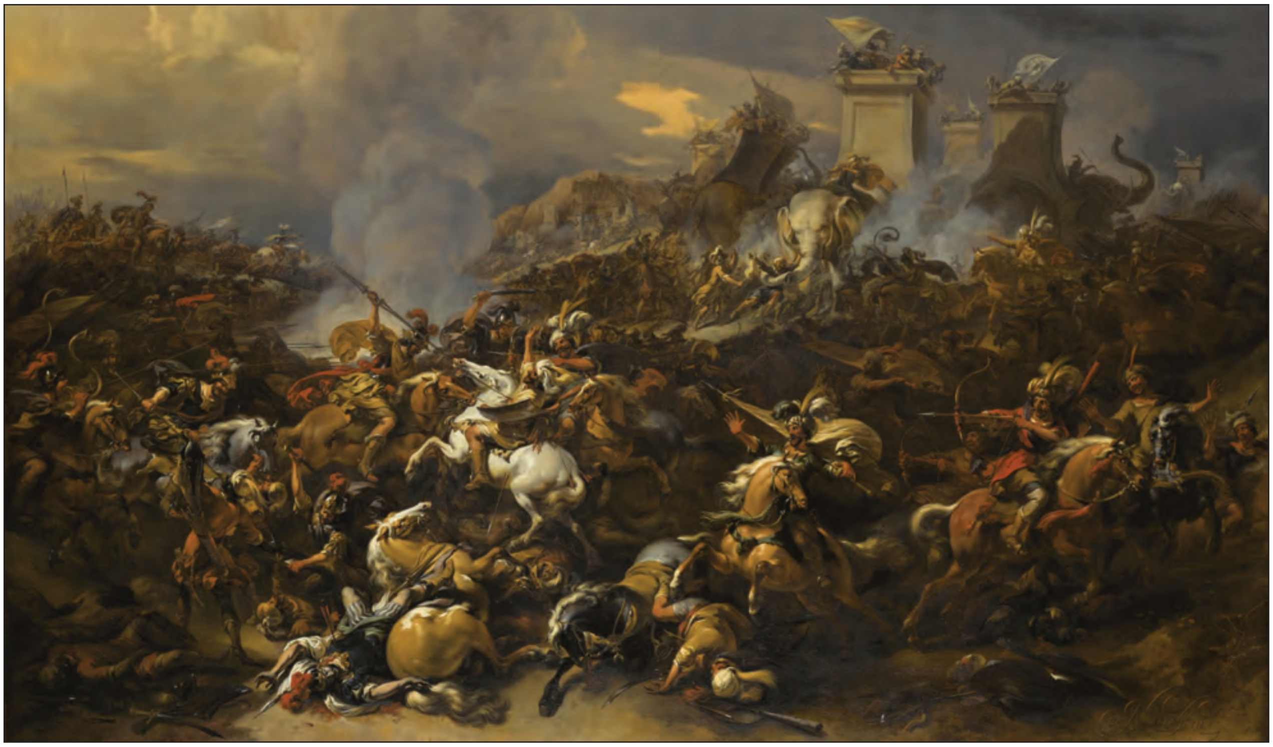
The Macedonian Army Rebels, Forces Withdrawal

Alexander had plans to continue his conquests beyond the Hydaspes, aiming to delve deeper into India. However, his Macedonian soldiers, who by now constituted only a fraction of his army, were exhausted. They were about 4000 miles (approximately 6000 kilometers) away from their homeland, having campaigned non-stop for eight years without seeing their families. Coenus, one of Alexander's principal marshals and a trusted advisor, spoke on behalf of the soldiers. He confronted Alexander, communicating the army's unanimous desire to return home. Realizing a potential mass mutiny, Alexander consented to retreat.

The journey back was not smooth. Beside the Hydaspes, the Macedonians constructed a fleet of ships. Half of the army, under General Nearchus's command, sailed down the river to the Indus and eventually the Indian Ocean. From there, they turned westward, making landfall at the northernmost point of the Persian Gulf, currently bordered by Iran, Iraq, and Kuwait. The remaining troops, led by Alexander, trekked overland.

The land journey was marked by sporadic and violent conflicts with local inhabitants. Near the town of Malli by the Hydraotes (Ravi) River, Alexander sustained a severe injury. It also present-

THE LAST BATTLE: HYDASPES, INDIA, 326 BC



The depiction illustrates the triumph of Alexander the Great over the Indian prince Porus at the Battle of the Hydaspes in 326 BC. The painting is titled "The Battle Between Alexander and Porus" and was created by Nicolaes Pietersz Berchem (1620–1683).

ed numerous challenges, including traversing arid deserts, coping with food scarcity, and enduring other hardships.

Close to a year later, the land-bound troops met up with their naval counterparts at the Persian Gulf. Both contingents had experienced casualties along their respective paths.

"Marriage of the East and West"

By this time, Alexander's plans for the merging of the Persian and Macedonian empires had taken final form. Even though the Persians were largely of mixed racial origin, except perhaps for their upper classes, Alexander envisioned a completely united and racially integrated—and therefore mixed—empire stretching from Greece to the borders of India.

This policy first became evident with his re-appointment of Persian governors to regions he had conquered, and then took on personal form when Alexander married Darius III's daughter, Stateira, at Susa in 324 BC.

This was, in fact, his second wife of Persian origin. Earlier in 327 BC, the Bactrian chief Oxyartes had accompanied the rebel would-be Persian emperor Bessus on his retreat across the Oxus River. After Bessus was captured and executed, Oxyartes then became the main anti-Macedonian rebel leader. While searching for Oxyartes, Macedonian forces captured his wife and daughters, bringing them before Alexander. The Macedonian king was smitten by one of Oxyartes' daughters, named Roxana, and he announced that he would marry her forthwith. Upon hearing this news, Oxyartes appeared before Alexander and became an ally, with the wedding between the Macedonian king and Roxana taking place later that year.

Alexander took a third Persian wife as well: Parysatis, the youngest daughter of Artaxerxes III, who had served as Emperor of Persia from 340 to 338 BC. She was married to Alexander in 324 BC at what became known as the "marriage of East and West" at Susa, during which 90 other Persian noblewomen were married to Macedonian and other Greek soldiers who had all served under Alexander.

At one stage, Alexander even attempted to impose Persian court ceremonies on the Macedonians, most notably the custom of prostration (*proskynesis*). It had been law for the Persians, upon entering the king's presence, to lay prostrate on the floor as an act of worship. Callisthenes, the otherwise flattering historian and nephew of Aristotle, pointedly refused to partake in this ritual, and records show that others in the royal entourage actually laughed out loud when requested to prostrate themselves before Alexander.

Rebellion against Alexander's Integration Policies

Alexander's policy of racial integration was strongly opposed by the majority of his army and the Macedonians in general. His policy of integrating the Persians on equal terms in the army and the administration of the empire's provinces was bitterly resented.

This unrest was inflamed by the incorporation of 30,000 men from Central Asia into the Macedonian army and by the recruitment of others from the Persian provinces of Bactria, Sogdiana, Arachosia, and other parts of the empire into the Hetairoi, or "Companion cavalry," the top elite of the Macedonian army whose prowess in the saddle made them the decisive offensive force in most of Alexander's victories. In addition, Alexander recruited a number of Persian nobles into the royal cavalry bodyguard.

Opis Mutiny over Integration, 324 BC

In 324 BC, the issue over Alexander's integrationist policies came to a head. When his army reached the city of Opis (located near the Tigris River in present-day Iraq), Alexander addressed his troops and gave them the option to return home if they deemed themselves unfit for service. Many Macedonians took it as an insult and an indication of Alexander's desire to replace them with Persians. A full-scale mutiny broke out, which Alexander only brought under control by arresting its leaders and replacing all the Macedonian guards at his tent with Persian soldiers—as if to emphasize the point that he could no longer rely on Macedonians.

The following day, Alexander managed to calm the situation by making a moving speech to the soldiers, recounting his and his soldiers' shared experiences, the conquests they achieved together, and the rewards they reaped. He also emphasized what he saw as the unity between the Macedonian and Persian people in his new empire.

This act of contrition on his part served to finally subdue the rebellion, and a grand banquet was held to symbolically bring together the Macedonian and Persian elements of his forces. However, shortly after, 10,000 veterans were sent back to Macedonia, laden with placatory gifts. Alexander, however, chose to stay in Babylon and never returned to Macedonia again.

The Death of Alexander and the Breakup of his Empire

While in Babylon, and busy with plans to improve the irrigation of the Euphrates and to settle the coast of the Persian Gulf, Alexander was suddenly taken ill after an alleged prolonged banquet and drinking bout, although the facts of the matter have never been fully clarified. He died ten days later, on June 13, 323 BC, just 33 years old.

His body was embalmed and sent back to Macedonia, but the carriage was diverted to Egypt by his General Ptolemy, the ruler of that province, and eventually buried in a golden coffin in the city of Alexandria.

No heir had been designated for the throne, so his generals recognized Philip II's illegitimate son, Philip Arrhidaeus, and Alexander's posthumous son with Roxana, Alexander IV, as kings. Both kings, however, were later murdered: Arrhidaeus in 317 and Alexander in 309. In the aftermath, the empire disintegrated into several independent kingdoms, each governed by the generals who assumed the title of king for their particular regions.

Within two decades of his demise, Alexander's dominion divided into four segments, three of which were under the control of his former generals.

General Seleucus and his descendants ruled Asia, establishing the Seleucid Empire; General Antigonus governed Greece and Macedonia, and the most renowned among them, General Ptolemy, ruled Egypt. The fourth segment, Asia Minor (Turkey), became autonomous and soon broke up into a number of different components.

Antigonids Govern Greece for 113 Years

From 281–168 BC, Antigonus and his successors held sway over most of the Greek mainland. The tension with Rome grew incrementally and peaked when Antigonid kings, especially Philip V, supported the eminent general, Hannibal of Carthage, in his military endeavors against Rome. This alliance instigated three wars against Rome, culminating in the Macedonian defeat in 168 BC at the Battle of Pydna. This clash marked the official termination of the Alexandrian Empire's influence in Greece.

The Romans instituted their preferred leaders, but a Corinthian uprising compelled Rome to deploy a fresh legion. This contingent subdued the insurgents at the Battle of Corinth in 146 BC, leading to the complete Roman annexation of Greece.

Ptolemaic Egypt—World's First Museums

Alexander's General Ptolemy inaugurated the Ptolemaic dynasty in Egypt, which endured from 323–30 BC. The most renowned Ptolemaic Egyptian queen was Cleopatra VII, noted for her liaisons with the Romans Julius Caesar and Mark Antony.

Though the Ptolemies ensured their lineage remained purely Macedonian, they adopted many of the attire and cultural traditions of ancient Egypt. They identified as pharaohs and crafted monuments and edifices in the style of the ancient Egyptians, so that many visitors to Egypt to the present day who are unaware of this fact cannot tell the Ptolemy artifacts apart from the genuinely ancient Egyptian ones. Even the practices of embalming and mummification revived during their reign.

ANTIGONUS I, FOUNDER OF THE ANTIGONID DYNASTY IN MACEDONIA

Antigonus I Monophthalmus ("Antigonus the One-Eyed"; 382–301 BC), founder of the founder of the Antigonid dynasty, which ruled over Macedonia until its conquest by the Romans in 168 BC.

THE PTOLEMIES—MACEDONIANS WHO RULED EGYPT FOR THREE CENTURIES

[1] Ptolemy I Soter (367–282 BC): The inaugural Macedonian ruler of Egypt. Ptolemy was a general under Alexander the Great and claimed Egypt as his kingdom after Alexander's death in 323 BC. He established a Macedonian elite to govern the racially diverse Egyptian populace. (Bust from the 3rd century BC, Musée du Louvre, Paris, France). [2] Ptolemy II Philadelphus (285–246 BC): The son of the Macedonian general Ptolemy I. The founding of the Library of Alexandria is attributed to him. (Bust excavated at the Villa of the Papyri, Herculaneum, Italy). [3] Ptolemy III Euergetes (280–222 BC): The third king of the Ptolemaic dynasty. Under this dynasty, the Ptolemies began dressing like the ancient Egyptians and constructed buildings in the ancient style. (Bust from the Villa of the Papyri, Herculaneum, Italy). [4] Cleopatra VII Thea Philopator (69–30 BC): The last of the Ptolemies, she is famous for her affairs with Julius Caesar and Mark Antony. She committed suicide after backing the losing side in the Roman civil war that erupted after Caesar's assassination. She was a direct descendant of Ptolemy I Soter. (Altes Museum, Berlin).

Ptolemy I also founded a center of scholarship and research, known as the *musea* — from the from Greek *mouseion*, from where the word "museum" originates.

Library of Alexandria Founded by Ptolemy II

Ptolemy I's *musea* was then expanded by his son and successor, Ptolemy II Philadelphus (285–246 BC) into what became the famous Library of Alexandria.

The custodians of the library aimed to gather all the texts of the known world for research purposes, and supposedly at its height had as many as 400,000 different works, stored in two buildings in the center of the city founded by Alexander.

The main building library lasted until the late 3rd century AD, when all records of it vanish. It was likely destroyed in civil unrest or the numerous sieges to which the city was subjected. at its height.

The second, and smaller part of the library, lasted a century longer, but was destroyed after the Christian Emperor Theodosius I outlawed paganism in 391 AD. A Christian mob then burned the building to the ground.

Ptolemaic Dynasty Ended by Roman Conquest

The Ptolemaic dynasty breathed new life into Egypt for a time, but the Macedonians, a minority, were eventually overwhelmed by the mixed-race local populace. The situation was further strained as Ptolemaic Egypt comprised territories like Palestine, parts of Syria, and a section of present-day southern Turkey. Most of these territories were seized by the Seleucids — descendants of another of Alexander's generals — circa 220 BC.

The relinquishment of Palestine signaled the decline of Ptolemaic influence in Egypt, marked by consistent tensions between the Macedonian elite and the Egyptian majority, sometimes escalating to violent clashes. Upper Egypt declared independence and was governed by its native populace between 205–185 BC.

Despite these challenges, the Macedonian Ptolemies retained their Greek heritage. Only the last Ptolemaic monarch, Cleopatra VII, learned the Egyptian language. She first became the consort of Julius Caesar and, following his assassination, married Mark Antony. Their forces were defeated by a

Roman army at the Battle of Actium, leading both to take their own lives.

This event signaled the end of Ptolemaic Egypt, the final Hellenistic kingdom. Following the Battle of Actium, the region became a Roman province.

By Cleopatra VII's downfall, Alexander's dominion had already disintegrated. The Macedonian settlements, scattered and outnumbered, were inevitably engulfed by the surrounding diverse populations.

Seleucids Crumble from Racial Diversity

General Seleucus claimed a vast segment of Alexander's empire, spanning from southern Turkey to the Sinai Desert and extending east to parts of current-day Iraq and Iran. Though Macedonian colonization was encouraged, the Seleucids lacked the numbers to govern such an expansive realm. Soon, the pressures of governing a diverse population began to fracture their empire.

In the northern territories, Macedonian descendants aligned with Indo-European tribes and mixed-race locals to secede, establishing the short-lived states of Bactria and Parthia. Among these Indo-Europeans were Celts, once settlers in Northern Macedonia.

The eastern bounds of the Seleucid Empire once bordered India but eventually lost its grip. In 168 BC, King Perseus of Macedonia suffered defeat at the hands of the Romans during the Battle of Pydna, leading to the abolition of the Macedonian monarchy. By 146 BC, Macedonia and Greece were annexed by Rome following a brief Macedonian revolt. In 64 BC, Roman general Pompey conquered the Seleucid Empire, converting it into a Roman province. The Romans unknowingly inherited the very challenges that led to the decline of Alexander's empire — a vast and diverse population that would soon pose threats even to Rome itself.

Alexandrian Age—Cultural Achievements

The period from 320–330 BC is recognized as the Alexandrian Age. In this era, significant philosophical, cultural, and scientific advances were realized, encompassing the creation of three distinguished philosophies: Epicureanism, Stoicism, and Skepticism.

Epicureanism was introduced by the philosopher Epicurus (342–270 BC) from Samos on the Ionian coast of Turkey. He dismissed the notion of an afterlife and posited that the ultimate good was to secure material benefits during one's life. Over time, this philosophy was misinterpreted as advocating for purely sensual pleasure.

Contrasting Epicurus, Zeno of Cyprus propounded that the sole objective in life should be liberation from worldly desires, wherein the aspirational state was one of tranquility, indifferent to both pain and pleasure. This line of thought came to be known as Stoicism. Skepticism, on the other hand, asserted that views on pain or pleasure were inherently subjective, thus negating any absolute truth or doctrine. Skeptics challenged the very foundation of established facts.

Circumference of Earth Measured in 200 BC

Owing to Alexander's conquests, Greek scientific understanding amalgamated with the discoveries in Babylon and Egypt, leading to numerous innovations. Enhanced geographical knowledge facilitated cartography and estimations of the Earth's size, already acknowledged as spherical based on its shadow during a lunar eclipse.

Eratosthenes (276–195 BC), the custodian of the Library of Alexandria, estimated the Earth's circumference to be within approximately 200 miles (321 km) of the actual value. He achieved this by observing the angular differences of shadows cast at noon by two identical poles positioned in the northern and southern parts of Egypt.

In the third century BC, Aristarchus of Samos posited that the Earth spun on its axis while orbiting a stationary sun. His theory only gained acceptance in the 1500s AD. Another luminary from Alexandria, Euclid the mathematician (circa 300 BC), laid down the principles and theorems of geometry that remain in use.

Archimedes (287–212 BC) of Syracuse is celebrated for formulating the laws of hydraulics, notably the principle that a solid displaces liquid equivalent to its own volume. Additionally, Archimedes determined the precise relationship between a circle's circumference and its diameter, known as Pi. He also designed the renowned Archimedes screw, a device for lifting water using a helical structure encased in a cylinder.

The Alexandrian Age's paramount legacy was the conveyance of a vast body of classical knowledge to the rising European power, Rome.

Chapter 13: Senatus Populusque Romanus (SPQR)—

The Roman Republic

The birth of the Republic of Rome ranks as one of the most momentous events in European history. The influence of that civilization stretched far beyond the city to which it owed its name and reverberates down through history to the present day.

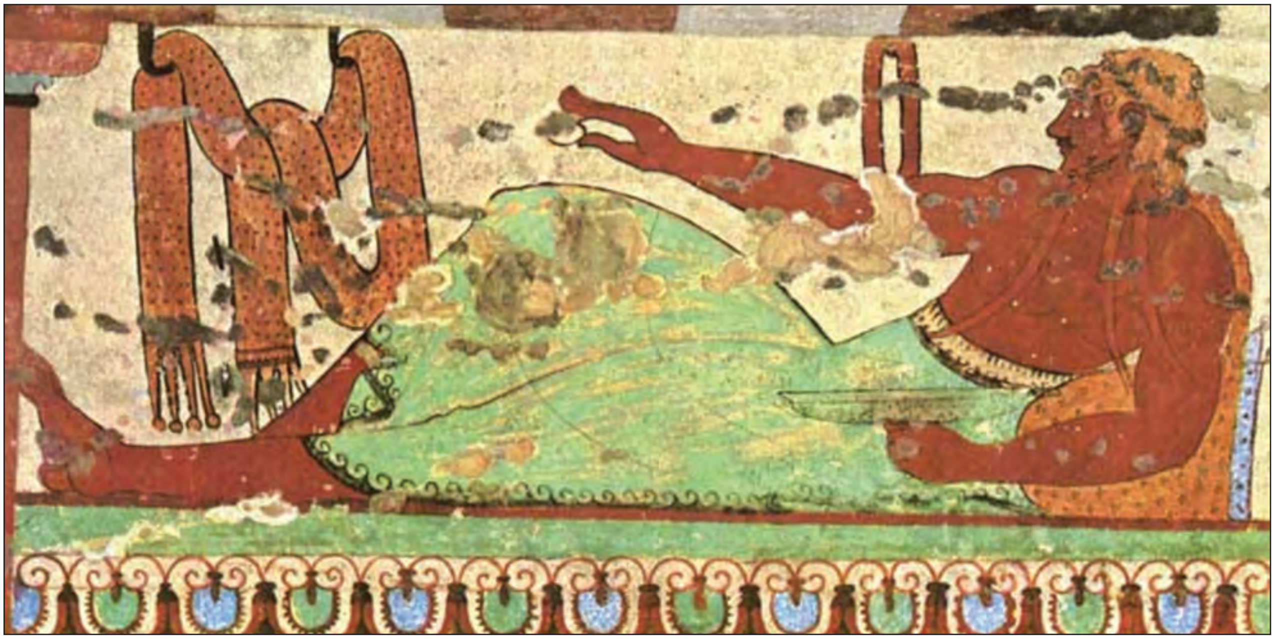
While Classical Greece may have laid the basis for much of Europe's intellectual, aesthetic, and philosophic thinking, Rome was the first truly organized giant state.

Much of what passes today as state forms, government organization, and even the names of nations and entire continents owe their origin to Rome.

As one of the most extensive empires in antiquity, Rome's political and legal systems became blueprints for the governance structures of many later European kingdoms and republics. Pivotal legal concepts like *habeas corpus* (the requirement for corroborating evidence, and not just allegations, are required to secure a conviction), and *Mens Rea* and *Actus Reus (*the idea that for a crime to occur, there must be both a guilty mind, *mens rea,* or intent, and a guilty act, *actus reus*), all developed in Rome, are still the foundations of all legal systems to the present day.

Latin, the language of the Romans, not only evolved into the Romance languages spoken by millions today, including Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Romanian, but also left an indelible mark on the lexicon and grammar of other European languages.

ETRUSCAN RACIAL TYPE, TOMBA DELLE LEONESSE, NECROPOLIS OF TARQUINIA, 600 BC



The necropolis of Monterozzi in Tarquinia, just north of Rome, is renowned for its painted Etruscan tombs carved into rock. The oldest tombs in the complex date from the 7th century. Pictured above is the "tomb of the lioness," which depicts a blond-haired man reclining, holding out an egg (symbolizing new life). The Etruscans adhered to the standard Old European tradition of painting men with red skin and women with white skin, to emphasize the idea that men worked outdoors. Further images of Etruscans can be found on pages 44 and 45.

The Etruscans—Advanced Civilization

The oldest organized civilization in Italy was that of the Etruscans, a mixture of the original Old European and Indo-European subgroups, with DNA analysis of ancient remains having shown their exact origin.[1] They were culturally and militarily superior to the other inhabitants of Italy. As a result, the Etruscans soon dominated a large part of northern Italy, establishing a sophisticated society, building advanced cities and systematically organizing agriculture and military forces.

However, the Etruscans were not the only ones interested in Italy. By 800 BC, several Greek city-states had also established settlements in southern Italy and Sicily. These were not merely imperialist colonies; the outposts also served as a buffer from the increasing number of forays from the aggressive and powerful city of Carthage, situated on the North African coast in the country known today as Tunisia.

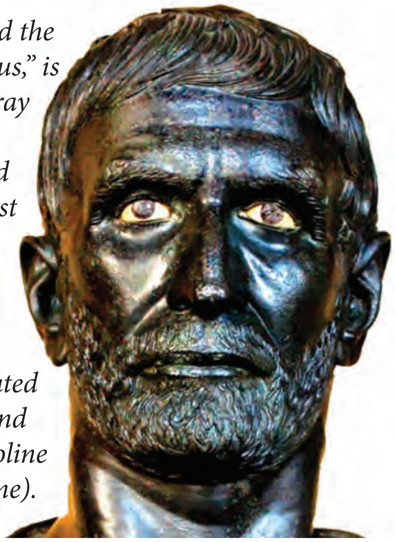
The Latini—Latecomer Indo-Europeans

The arrival of the Latini tribe, a sub-division of the great Indo-European invasions of Europe, caused a revolution in Italy. The date of their arrival is unknown, but it is likely after 800 BC. Armed with iron weapons, they quickly established their dominance over the existing population, sparking a conflict that would dominate much of early Roman history.

City of Rome Founded around 753 BC

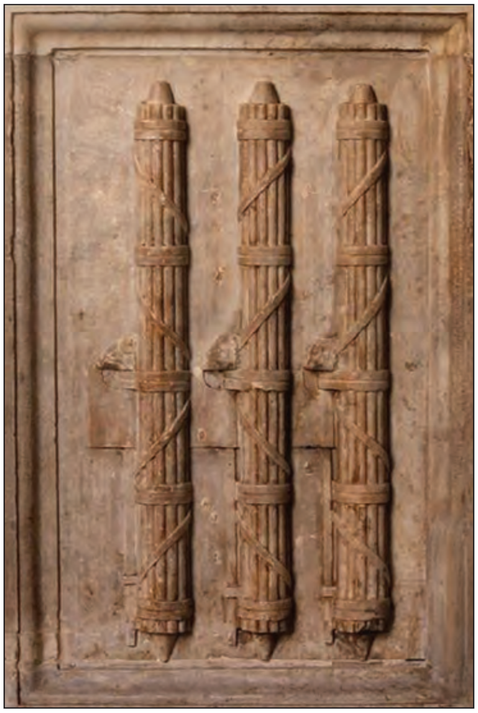
According to Roman legend, the city of Rome was founded around the year 753 BC by the orphaned twin brothers Romulus and Remus, who were saved from death in their infancy by a she-wolf who had sheltered and suckled them. Setting aside the legendary origins of this tale, it is clear that by the year 700 BC, the city had been established on the seven hills around the Tiber River valley. By the sixth century BC, both the city and the surrounding areas were under Etruscan rule.

LUCIUS BRUTUS, LEADER OF THE 509 BC REVOLT



A bust, termed the "Capitoline Brutus," is believed to portray Lucius Junius Brutus, who led the revolt against Rome's last king and was a founding figure of the Roman Republic. Estimated creation around 275 BC. (Capitoline Museums, Rome).

FASCES ON A ROMAN ALTAR, EARLY REPUBLICAN PERIOD



A carving of three fasces is depicted on a funerary altar. Originally, fasces were carried by lictors. (Capitoline Museums, Rome).

Fasces: A symbol of Unity and Authority

Rome at this stage was ruled by kings elected by the people. The symbol of Rome's elected king, known worldwide as a symbol of power, was an ax head bound together in a bundle of reeds, called a fasces. The rationale behind the symbol was that each tribe was represented by one reed. By themselves, they could be easily broken, but bound together, they could become a powerful force.

The fasces symbol, which was perhaps most famously used by the 20th-century Italian leader Benito Mussolini (who named his party after the symbol), has indeed been a commonly utilized symbol throughout much of European history to represent authority. It even spread to the New World and can be seen in

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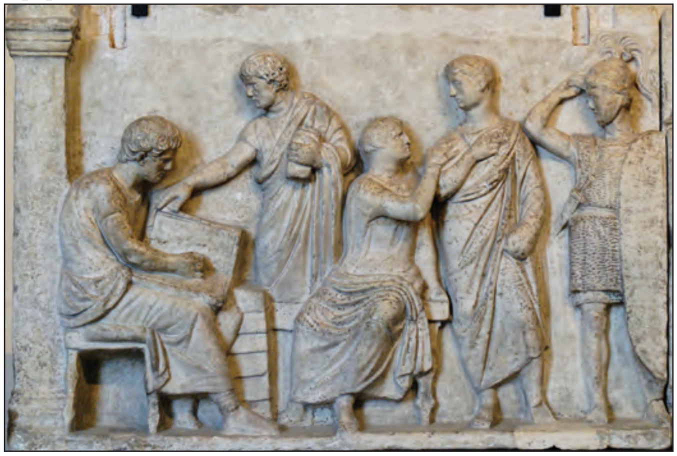
[1] For details of European Etruscan DNA, see "The origin and legacy of the Etruscans through a 2000-year archeogenomic time transect," Posth, C., et al., *Science Advances,* 24 Sep 2021, Vol 7, Issue 39.

EARLY ROMAN RACIAL TYPES ON THE ALTAR OF DOMITIUS AHENOBARBUS, 200 BC

The "Altar of Domitius Ahenobarbus" consists of a series of marble plaques that once adorned an altar in the Temple of Neptune located in Rome's "Field of Mars," the congregation area of the soldier's assembly. Originating from the end of the 2nd century BC, these sculptures are the earliest extant depictions of ordinary Romans. (Sections of the altar can be viewed at the Glyptothek, Munich, Germany, and in the Louvre Museum, Paris).

[1]



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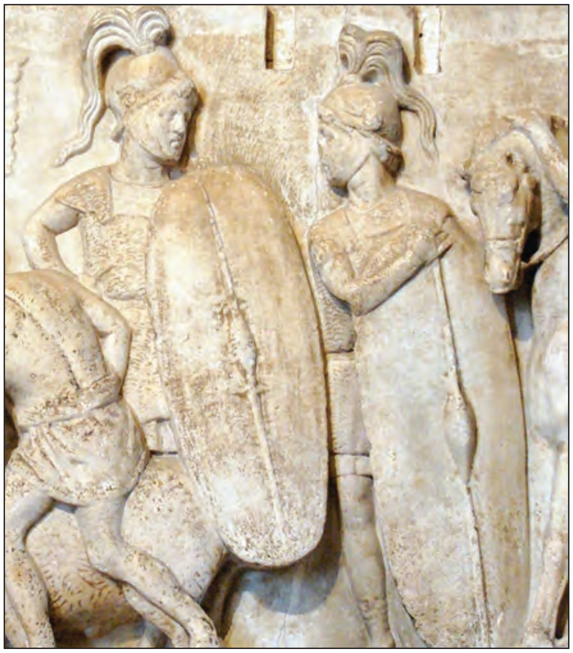

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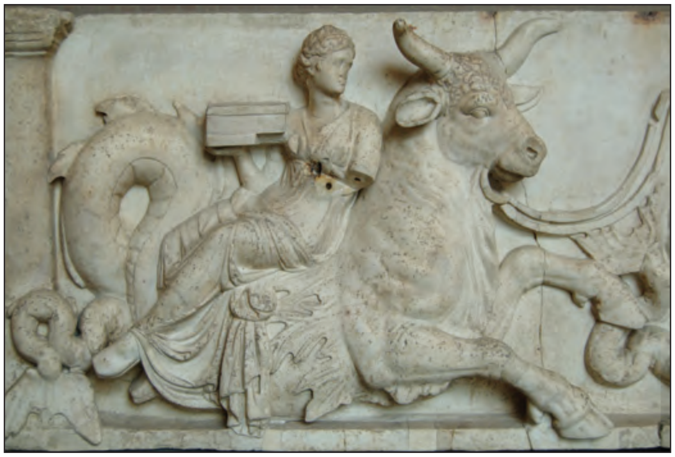
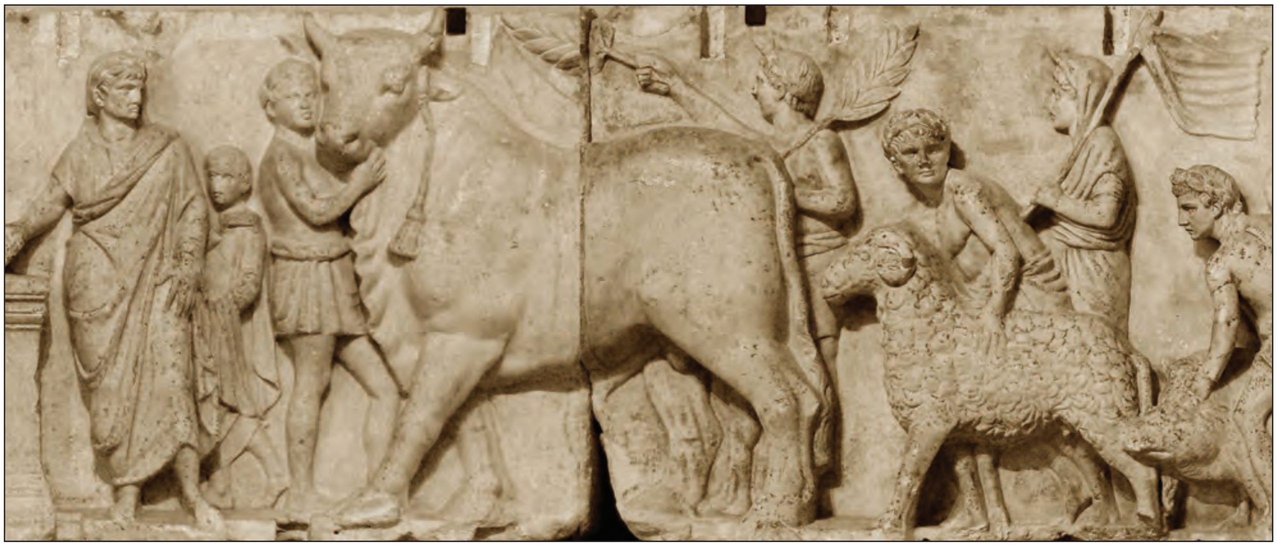


[1] The registration of Roman citizens.
[2] Republican legionnaires.
[3] One segment of the marble frieze from the Altar of Domitius Ahenobarbus features mythological figures, notably depicting what seems to be Europa on a bull, an imagery borrowed from Greek mythology.
[4] Animals being readied for slaughter.

[4]



THE APPIAN WAY—ONE OF ROME'S GREATEST ROADS

The Appian Way, perhaps Rome's most famous road, was constructed around 310 BC by Appius Claudius. This significant highway connected Rome to Capua and was later extended to Brindisi. Starting from Rome, the first nine miles were adorned with opulent mansions and the grand tombs of distinguished Romans. Above left: A depiction of the construction of the Appian Way. The artist's rendering accurately highlights the presence of foreign slaves, a factor pivotal to Rome's future path.

the hands of the Abraham Lincoln statue in the Lincoln Memorial in Washington DC, in the White House's Oval Office, on the walls of the US House of Representatives behind the Speaker's chair, on the US Supreme Court building, among many other places.

Origin of the Senate

Advising the first Roman kings were the heads of all the leading families gathered together in a group called the senate. This body remained in place, with varying powers, until the fall of the Roman Empire some 1,500 years later. The senators and their families became the upper class of Rome, called the Patricians, while the common people were known as the Plebeians.

The Last Roman King Expelled, 509 BC

In the year 509 BC, a group of patricians led a rebellion against a particularly unpopular king, Lucius Tarquinius Superbus. After being driven out of the city, Tarquinius raised troops from his allied Etruscan cities of Veii and Tarquinii. The two sides fought at the Battle of Silva Arsia in 509 BC, and Tarquinius was defeated.

Undeterred, he raised a new army with the help of Lars Porsena, the king of another Etruscan city, Clusium. Porsena's army then marched on Rome, determined to restore the deposed king. It was during this time that the famous story of "Horatius at the bridge" emerged.

As the legend goes, a Roman soldier named Horatius, who was captain of the detachment which held the only bridge over the Tiber River offering access to the city, personally faced off against the Etruscan king's army while the bridge to the city was destroyed. Like much of early Roman history, it is uncertain how much of the story is factual.

In any event, Tarquinius never regained control of the city. He did, however, launch one last attempt. Once again relying on outside Etruscan allies, he fought the Romans once more at the Battle of Lake Regillus in 496 BC. The Romans won once again, and Tarquinius fled, never to bother Rome again.

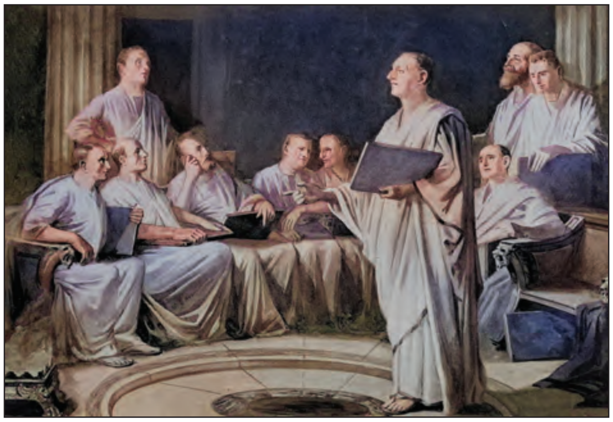
Roman Republic Created 509 BC

The expulsion of the last Etruscan king marks the creation of the Roman Republic, which was a limited democracy. In this system, only the Patricians could vote or hold office, while the Plebeians were completely excluded. Over the course of the next 200 years, however, the right to vote was gradually extended.

The former king's religious functions were taken over by a priest-king (*rex sacrorum*), who held office for life, whereas his other powers were vested in two annually elected magistrates called consuls.

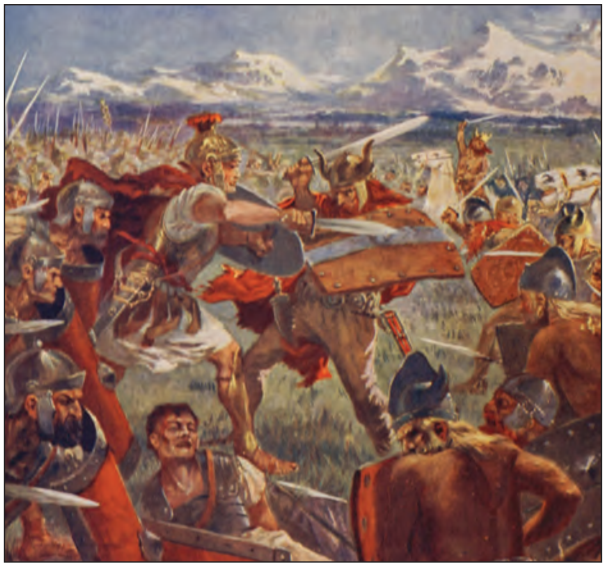
The consuls were primarily generals who led Rome's armies in war. Therefore, they were elected by the *centuriat*e assembly (the Roman army organized into a voting body). This *comitia centuriata*

COMPILING THE TWELVE TABLES, 451 BC



In 451 BC, a board of ten men, known as the Decemviri, was entrusted with the task of drafting a legal code to placate the populace and address their grievances. This set of laws, termed the "Twelve Tables," became the foundation of the codified Roman legal system, which is perhaps Rome's most significant contribution to the world.

ROME REPEATEDLY ATTACKED BY GAULS



Throughout its early history, the Roman Republic faced repeated invasions from Gauls originating from the region known as Cisapline Gaul (now northern Italy). In 387 BC, these Gauls succeeded in sacking Rome. The illustration above portrays an imagined scene from 222 BC, where the Consul Marcellus confronts the Gallic leader Virdumarus in a duel. Marcellus prevailed, slaying Virdumarus, and thereby earned the accolade "spolia optima." This term referred to the armor, weaponry, and other belongings that a Roman general would take from an adversary commander's corpse.

always met outside the sacred boundary of the city, the Field of Mars (*Campus Martius*). Here it voted on war and peace, among other important matters of state. In theory, the Senate "advised" both consuls, but in practice, that body wielded significant power due to its status and became the single most important source of legislation in Rome.

Lastly, all adult male citizens of Rome could vote in an assembly which elected magistrates who exercised legislative power and made other important decisions.

First Major Roman Legal Code

During this period of nation-forming, the Romans penned their first major legal code. In 450 BC, the "Law of the Twelve Tables" was established, which served as the foundation for the entire Roman legal system and laid the groundwork for many present-day legal systems. They were termed the "tables" because they were publicly displayed for all citizens to see on copper tablets affixed to the walls of public buildings.

The Twelve Tables addressed rules of procedure, evidence, rights of all citizens, and specific rules concerning capital crimes, intentional homicide, treason, perjury, judicial corruption, and the authorship of slanderous poems. Reflecting the older Greek Spartan tradition, the Twelve Tables explicitly prescribed the euthanasia death for any infant displaying prominent deformities or retardation.

Rome Grows and Flexes its Might

Though originally not as advanced as the Etruscans, by 400 BC, the Latini had assimilated much of the Etruscan culture and had surpassed their former masters in every aspect, both militarily and culturally. The secret to their success—as was the case with the entire Roman Empire—was their remarkable ability to organize on a scale unparalleled since the era of the earliest Egyptians.

Through a series of alliances, commonly referred to as the "Latin League," the Romans had by 400 BC established their dominance over all of central Italy, reaching well beyond their original city boundaries. Some neighboring tribes joined voluntarily, while others had to be conquered before they acquiesced.

Celtic Gauls Sack Rome, 387 BC

The Romans confronted another severe crisis in 387 BC when the Gauls, descendants of Celtic tribesmen who had settled in France, attacked and subsequently sacked Rome. The Gauls eventually departed after the Romans bribed them with gold.

The Gaulish invasion revealed a significant weakness within the Latin League. The other members of the alliance had declined to support Rome against the Gauls. This betrayal was not overlooked by the Romans. By 380 BC, they had not only rebuilt their city with substantial defensive walls but also began amassing a stronger army.

In 338 BC, after forming alliances with certain smaller tribes around Rome, the Romans confronted their former allies in the Latin League, decisively defeating them. By 280 BC, they became the dominant power in Italy.

Greek Wars and the "Pyrrhic Victory"

As Roman influence expanded, conflict with the Greek settlements in southern Italy was inevitable. War erupted when the Romans began occupying the southern regions of Italy.

A Greek king named Pyrrhus from the city of Epirus in northern Greece was enlisted by Tarentum, one of the Grecian cities in southern Italy, to fend off the Romans. Pyrrhus secured a victory against the Romans, momentarily halting their advance.

However, the victory's toll—in manpower and resources—was so extensive that the Greek forces were depleted. By 270 BC, all of Italy had succumbed to Rome, as the Greeks could no longer sustain the war. Such a costly victory, which leads to an ultimate defeat, has since been termed a Pyrrhic victory.

Carthage—a Threat to Rome

Following the neutralization of Greek strongholds in Italy, only the city of Carthage, located on the North African coast, posed a significant challenge to further Roman expansion. Established around 800 BC by the Phoenicians, Carthage had evolved into a formidable entity. The Latin term for Phoenician is *Punicus,* which gave rise to the word "Punic." This is why the Roman conflicts against Carthage are termed the Punic Wars.

First Punic War Fought Over Sicily

Situated on the Tunisian coast, the city of Carthage was Rome's principal adversary for many years. Initially founded by the Phoenicians, Carthage's populace had undergone various racial in-

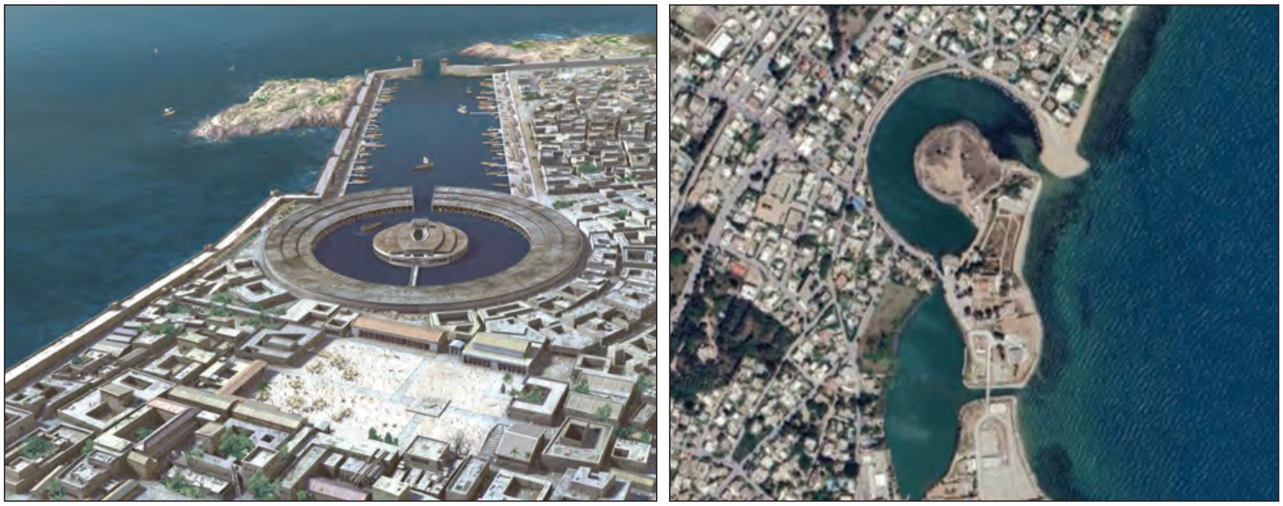
PYRRHUS AND THE PYRRHIC VICTORY 279 BC

A well-preserved bust of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus in Greece, is a testament to his journey to Italy and Sicily with his army and elephants, assisting Greek cities against the advancing Romans. Despite an initial victory, the toll on his forces led to his eventual downfall. Pyrrhus is famously remembered for stating, "One more victory like that and I will be undone." Hence, a costly triumph that results in a greater loss is termed a Pyrrhic victory.

PART OF ROME'S ORIGINAL CITY WALLS, 300 BC

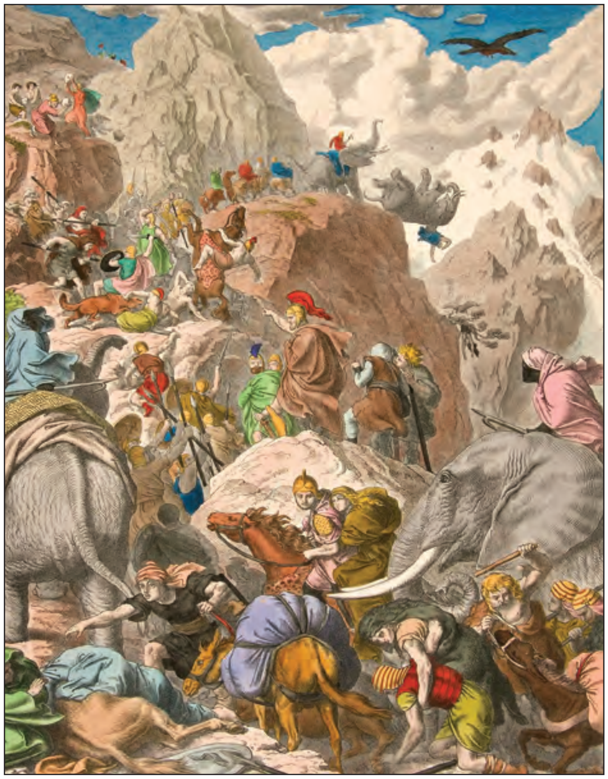
The Porta Esquilina was an integral part of the original city walls of Rome. The gate itself dates from around 400 BC.

CARTHAGE HARBOR, THEN AND NOW



Above left: A detailed reconstruction of the Carthage harbor during its prime, based on archaeological findings and accounts from both Carthaginian and Roman records. Carthage is located in the city today known as Tunis in Tunisa, North Africa. Above right: Modern satellite imagery reveals the remnants of Carthage's harbor.

HANNIBAL CROSSES THE ALPS INTO ROME BUT ONLY ONE ELEPHANT SURVIVES THE JOURNEY



The Carthaginian General Hannibal and his army took on the formidable task of crossing the Alps in order to take the war to Rome's doorstep. Of the war elephants that embarked on the perilous journey, only one survived. (Yale University Art Gallery, Yale, Connecticut).

tegrations over the centuries. By the time of their confrontations with Rome, they were a blend of European and Semitic groups.[2] The upper classes, as evidenced by surviving depictions on coins and art, seem to have been predominantly European.

In 264 BC, a war erupted between Rome and Carthage over the island of Sicily. After facing initial setbacks, the Romans overcame the Carthaginians, compelling them to seek peace in 241 BC. According to the peace treaty, Rome took control of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, augmenting the territorial acquisitions of the city republic.

Second Punic War—Hannibal Invades Italy

Often referred to as "Hannibal's war," the Second Punic War commemorates the formidable Carthaginian general who, after an extensive campaign, came close to toppling Rome.

Having relinquished control of Sicily and other Mediterranean islands, Carthage dispatched an army to invade Spain between 237-219 BC. The Carthaginians, seasoned in battle, quickly subdued the local inhabitants.

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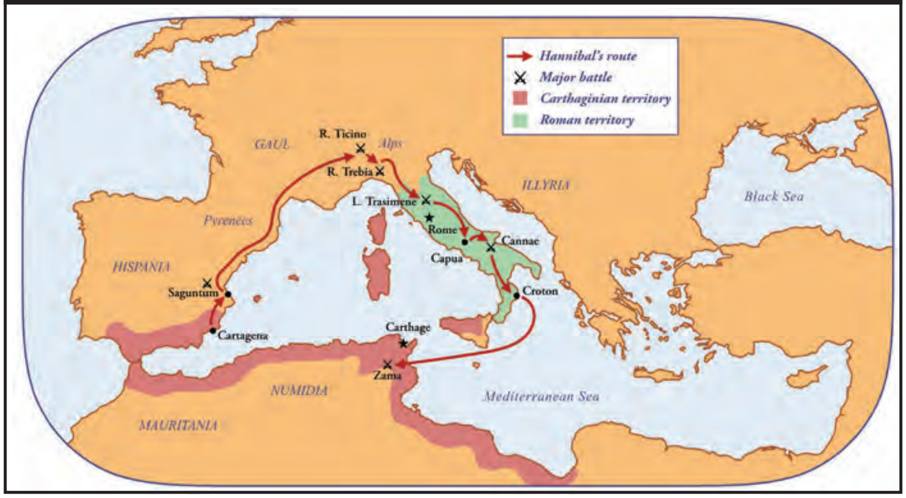
[2] For details of the European input into the population of Carthage, see "A European Mitochondrial Haplotype Identified in Ancient Phoenician Remains from Carthage, North Africa," Matisoo-Smith, E. A., et al., *PLOS ONE,* 2016; 11 (5): e0155046; and "Ancient DNA of Phoenician remains indicates discontinuity in the settlement history of Ibiza," Zalloua, P., et al., *Scientific Reports* volume 8, Article number: 17567 (2018).

MAP OF HANNIBAL'S CAMPAIGN ROUTE



Starting in 218 BC, Hannibal, leading approximately fifty thousand soldiers and thirty-seven African elephants, ventured across southern France and through the Alps into northern Italy (tragically, only one elephant survived this formidable trek).

Upon reaching Italy, Hannibal roamed the nation for nearly fifteen years, continuously challenging the Romans.

Battle of Cannae, 216 BC

Among Hannibal's numerous triumphs, the Battle of Cannae stands out. Here, he overpowered a larger Roman contingent deep in southeast Italy. This battle, where the Carthaginians encircled and decimated at least 86,000 Romans, is celebrated as one of the most remarkable tactical achievements in military annals and one of Rome's most catastrophic defeats. Following the revelations of this significant loss, several of Rome's allies shifted allegiance to the Carthaginians.

First Roman-Macedonian War 215 to 205 BC

In Greece, the Macedonian king, Philip V—of the Antigonid dynasty—declared his allegiance to Hannibal, thereby initiating the First Roman-Macedonian War. In response, Rome forged alliances with the Aetolian League, a coalition of Greek city-states already in conflict with Macedonia, and deployed a small force to menace Macedonia's coastline.

However, for a period, it seemed the Romans had encountered a formidable adversary. Their situation worsened when a group of invading Gauls in northern Italy ambushed and annihilated another Roman legion at the Battle of Silva Litana shortly after the Battle of Cannae.

Rome Regroups and Continues the War

Despite the odds, the Romans declined all peace overtures. By this time, almost all of southern Italy had fallen to adversaries. Yet, the Romans revamped their forces, relaxed army enrollment standards, and promptly rejuvenated their military strength. By employing a mix of diplomacy and military maneuvers, the Carthaginians managed to annex vast regions of Sicily, which had been under Roman governance until 215 BC. It took the Romans another five years to dislodge the Carthaginians.

The subsequent twelve years after the Battle of Cannae witnessed fluctuating war fortunes in southern Italy. However, by 207 BC, the Romans had pushed Hannibal and his forces to Italy's southernmost tip. Concurrently, the Romans embarked on campaigns in Iberia, intending to eradicate Carthaginian influence from western Europe and today's French Mediterranean coast.

Despite encountering numerous challenges—primarily due to Carthaginians successfully bribing mercenaries thought to be loyal to Rome—Roman general Publius Cornelius Scipio landed in Iberia in 210 BC. In southern Spain, he bested the Carthaginian forces commanded by Hasdrubal Barca, Hannibal's sibling, at the Battle of Baecula.

Though defeated, Hasdrubal efficiently evacuated most of his army along the coast into Gaul (present-day southern France).

Battle of the Metaurus, 207 BC

Hasdrubal navigated his 35,000-strong army through the Alps into northern Italy. The Romans promptly dispatched a robust force northward, clashing with the new Carthaginian challengers at the Battle of the Metaurus in 207 BC. There, Hasdrubal and his army suffered a crushing defeat, resulting in his death.

Back in Iberia, Scipio triumphed over the last significant Carthaginian contingent at the 206 BC Battle of Ilipa. This victory effectively neutralized

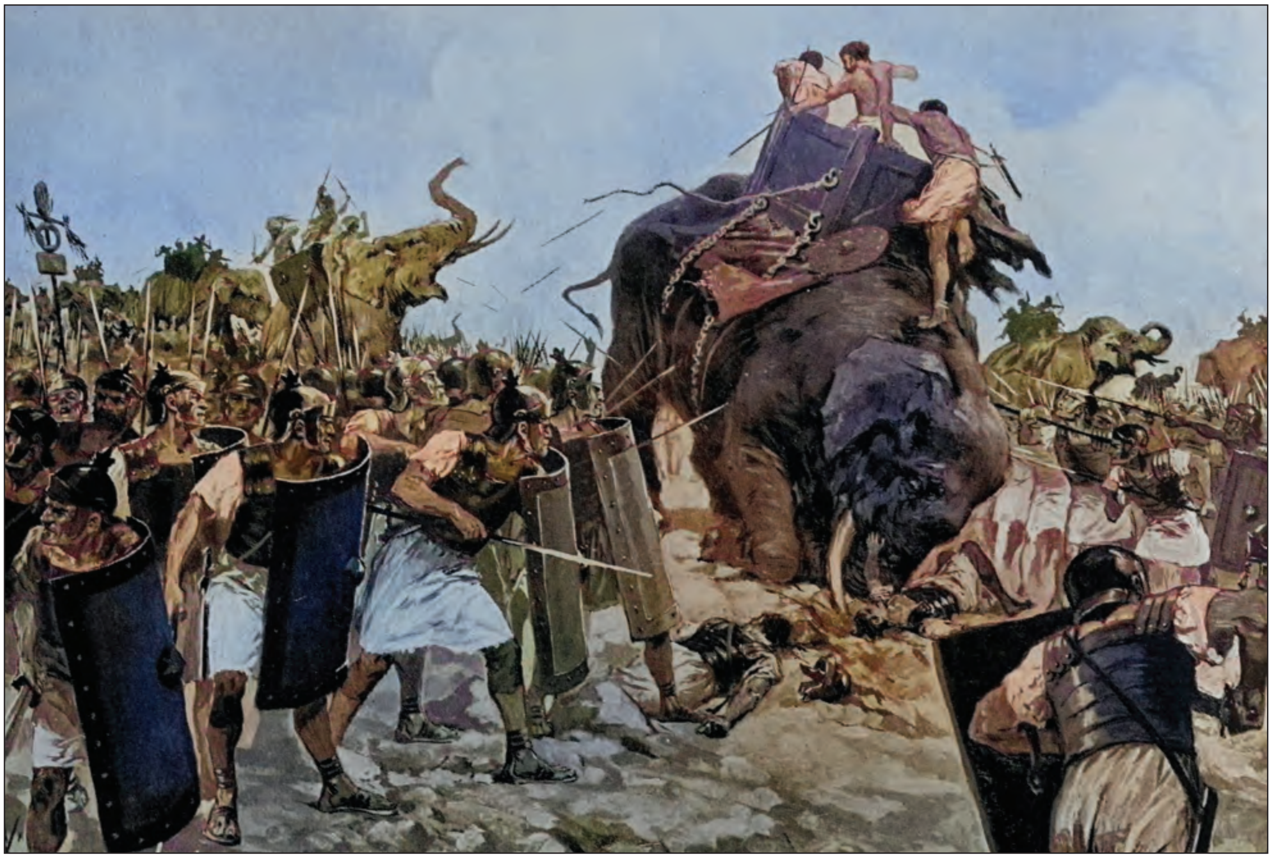
HANNIBAL, HERO OF CARTHAGE

Hannibal, the preeminent warrior of Carthage, as portrayed on a silver coin struck in his home city around 220 BC.

SCIPIO, HERO OF ROME

A coin depicting the Roman general Publius Scipio, circa 175 BC. Excavated in Carthago Nova. (National Museum, Copenhagen.)

CARTHAGE IS DEFEATED: THE BATTLE OF ZAMA, 202 BC



The decisive battle of the Roman-Carthaginian Wars took place at Zama, in present-day Tunisia, in 202 BC. The Carthaginians were utterly defeated, resulting in their territories in Iberia and the region now called North Africa falling under Roman control. A new Roman city was then built on the ruins of old Carthage.

Carthage's military capabilities in Iberia. Returning to Rome as a venerated hero, Scipio was elected consul in 205 BC. He subsequently journeyed to Sicily, planning what would become the war's defining moment: a direct assault on North Africa and Carthage itself.

Scipio Invades North Africa, 204 BC

By 204 BC, all preparations were complete, and a formidable Roman force landed on the coast outside Carthage. After joining forces with a local Berber tribe, which had been meticulously prepared in advance as allies, the Roman troops defeated two substantial Carthaginian armies consecutively.

Consequently, the Carthaginians recalled Hannibal from southern Italy to assist in preparing Carthage's defense.

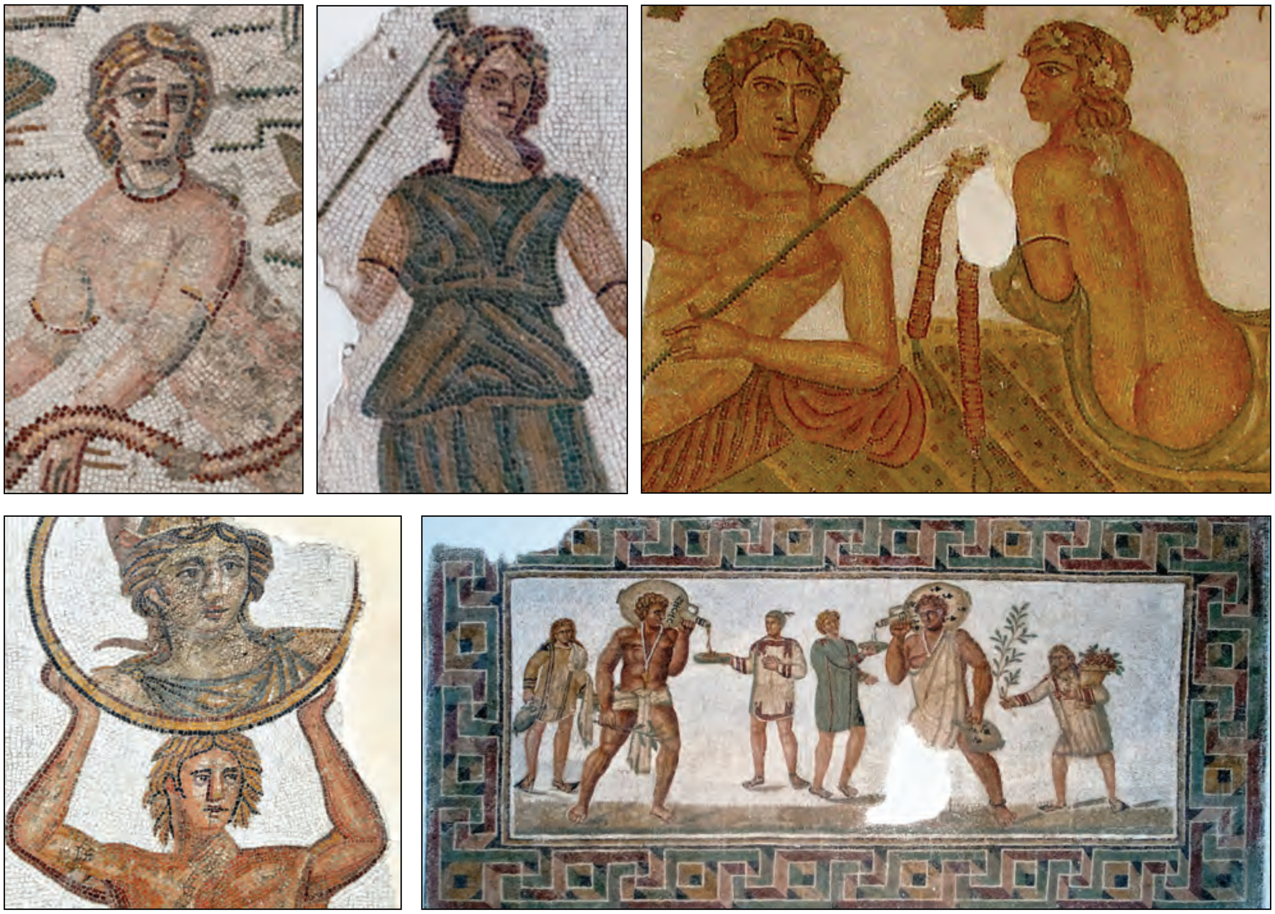
Battle of Zama, 202 BC

After protracted negotiations and an extensive campaign deep into what is now Tunisia, Scipio achieved a decisive victory over Hannibal at the Battle of Zama in 202 BC. Following the battle, a peace treaty was established, under which Carthage agreed to disarm, compensate Rome, and transfer its Spanish territories to Roman jurisdiction. The Romans never forgave Hannibal and pursued him to Asia Minor (present-day Turkey). There, he took his own life in 182 BC, marking the end of the Second Punic War.

Romans Name Africa, 202 BC

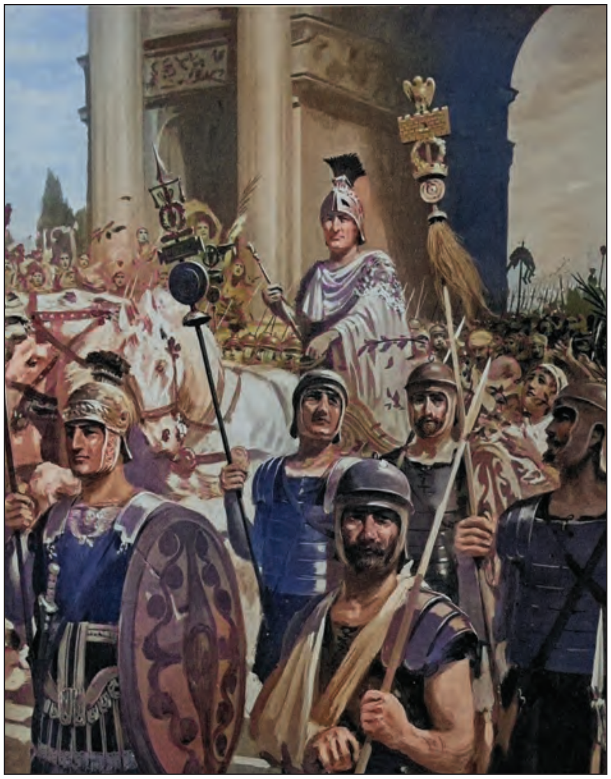
Upon subjugating Carthage, the Romans segmented the territory into multiple provinces. They named two of these regions: *Africa Proconsularis* (which corresponds to modern-day northern Tunisia) and *Africa Nova* (modern-day Algeria, formerly referred to as Numidia). These names gradually became a common reference for regions along the southern Mediterranean shoreline, superseding the Greek terms "Libya" and "Ethiopia." Ulti-

BLOND ROMANS CONQUER NORTH AFRICA



Roman mosaics from the region around Carthage. The original coloration depicts all subjects with blond hair, shedding light on the racial composition of the Roman conquerors of North Africa.

THE TRIUMPH OF SCIPIO



The Roman general, Publius Scipio, celebrates his victories over the Carthaginians with a parade through Rome. He took the name of one of the Roman provinces in the country he conquered, "Africa," thereby giving that name to the entire continent and all its people.

mately, "Africa" was adopted as the name for the entire continent and its indigenous inhabitants—a naming legacy of the Romans.

In honor of his achievements, Scipio adopted the moniker Scipio Africanus, the designation that history remembers him by.

Second Roman-Macedonian War, 200 to 196 BC

The defeat of Carthage significantly boosted the prestige and power of Rome. Such prestige was evident when the Greek city-states sought Rome's intervention in a conflict involving the three remaining components of Alexander the Great's Empire: Antigonid Macedonia, the Seleucid Empire (which encompassed most of the ancient Persian Empire), and Ptolemaic Egypt. The Antigonids and Seleucids briefly allied to annex Egypt following its descent into anarchy.

South of Macedonia, various Greek city-states established the "Achaean League" (named after a region in northern Peloponnese) in 280 BC. As the main competitor to Macedonia, the League naturally aligned with Rome.

Perceiving the Antigonid-Seleucidan alliance as a formidable threat, the Achaean League turned to Rome for arbitration. Rome responded, instructing the Macedonians to cease hostilities against their new Greek allies. However, Antigonid king Philip V disregarded this instruction, leading to his astonishment when a Roman army arrived in Greece. His forces met a crushing defeat in 197 BC at the Battle of Cynoscephalae.

The ensuing peace treaty required Philip V to avoid foreign campaigns, abstain from meddling in affairs beyond his borders, and relinquish any territories he had acquired on the Greek mainland.

Rome Promises "Freedom of the Greeks" at the 196 BC Isthmian Games

Rome's stature further ascended when its premier general in Greece, Titus Quinctius Flamininus—conqueror at the Battle of Cynoscephalae—announced at an annual athletics event in Corinth that the "Greek states were now free." As a result, he was hailed by the Greeks as a liberator.

The Roman–Seleucid War, 192–188 BC

The unfolding events in Greece did not sit well with the Seleucid Empire, leading to a prolonged phase of strained relations. Both the Romans and Seleucids vied for influence, forging alliances with subordinate states in western Anatolia and Greece.

Among the Seleucids' successful alliances was one with the Aetolian League, previously a Roman ally during the First Roman-Macedonian War.

The League, like other former Greek allies of Rome, hadn't anticipated such extensive Roman involvement and consequently agreed to an alliance with Antiochus III, the anti-Roman monarch of the Seleucid Empire.

In 192 BC, Antiochus's troops landed in Greece. Roman units swiftly converged on the peninsula to confront them. This culminated in the 191 BC Battle of Thermopylae, where the Seleucids were vanquished and pushed back into Anatolia.

Simultaneously, the Roman fleet demonstrated its dominance in two major naval confrontations. By 190 BC, Roman forces had sailed across the Aegean and ventured deep into Anatolia in pursuit of the Seleucid monarch. Antiochus confronted the

Romans once more at the Battle of Magnesia (situated in western Anatolia) but faced another defeat. The peace treaty that concluded the war mandated the Seleucids to yield the western half of Asia Minor (modern-day Turkey) to Rome, compensate Rome for wartime expenses, and pledge not to advance into the Aegean again.

The Aetolian League was compelled to recognize their new status as Roman client states.

Ultimately, the Roman–Seleucid War extended Roman dominion over the Balkans, Asia Minor, and extensive sections of the eastern Mediterranean coast. Following these events, the Romans retracted all their military forces from Greece.

Third Macedonian War (172 to 168 BC) Ends Antigonid Rule

Roman interest in Greece was soon rekindled due to renewed Macedonian aggression by Philip V's successor. Responding to the aggression, a Roman army arrived in Greece and, in 168 BC, defeated the Macedonian king Perseus at the Battle of Pydna in central Macedonia.

This battle had catastrophic consequences for the Antigonids. Perseus was dethroned and transported to Rome in chains, marking the termination of the Antigonid dynasty. The Macedonian kingdom was officially disbanded, partitioned into four republics, and granted autonomy.

Fourth Macedonian War (150 to 148 BC) Leads to Roman Occupation of Greece

Before long, a contender for the Macedonian throne emerged. Andriscus, claiming to be a descendant of the last Antigonid king, managed to persuade a significant number of Macedonians to back his claim. In 149 BC, he ascended to the throne as Philip VI, reuniting Macedonia.

The Romans promptly vanquished this new Macedonian claimant at the Second Battle of Pydna. Following this, Rome annexed Macedonia and established its inaugural permanent colony in Greece. The Roman general Metellus, who triumphed at the Second Battle of Pydna, was designated the first governor of this new province.

Roman-Achaean War, 146 BC

Although still nominally allied with Rome, the Achaean League—which readers may recall as the coalition of Greek City-States that initially sought Roman intervention—became increasingly discontented with the Roman presence in Greece. Following multiple disputes regarding the League's authority over its foreign policy, the Achaean League declared war on Rome in 146 BC.

Led by Metellus, Roman troops achieved several swift victories, most notably at the Battle of Scarpheia in central Greece. The primary Achaean forces were decisively defeated, with survivors retreating to Corinth.

Corinth Sacked, Greece Annexed

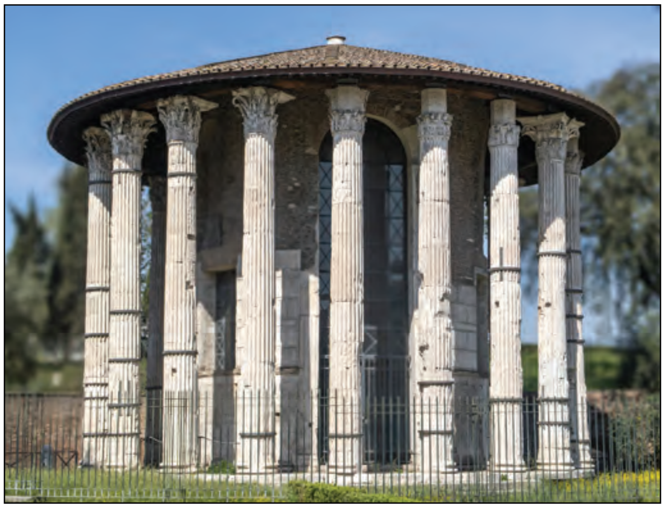
The Romans pursued the Achaeans to Corinth's gates, where, in the climactic confrontation of the war, they overwhelmed the remaining Greek forces. Following the battle, the city of Corinth was thoroughly looted and devastated, necessitating comprehensive reconstruction post-war.

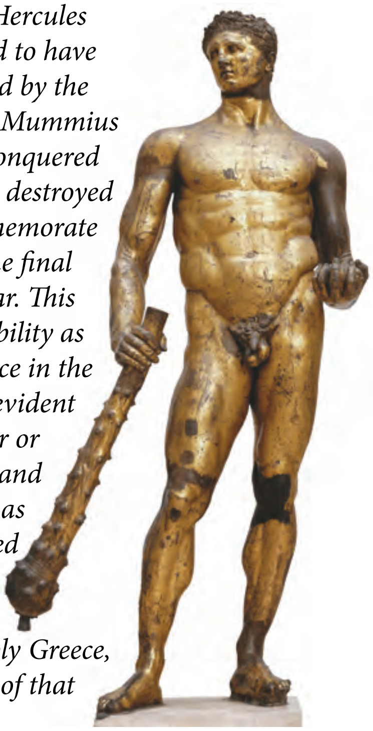
Subsequently, the Romans incorporated all of Greece. However, besides restructuring along Roman paradigms, not much else altered. The pronounced similarities between ancient Greek and Roman cultures were evident. In many Greek lo-

PHILIP V OF MACEDON: ENEMY AND ALLY OF ROME

Philip V (238–179 BC), of the Antigonid dynasty, reigned as the king of Macedon from 221 to 179 BC. He initiated two conflicts with Rome, succumbing in both, but subsequently formed an alliance with Rome against Antiochus III during the Roman-Seleucid War. His heir and successor, Perseus of Macedon, ignited another confrontation with Rome. The outcome saw him defeated, dethroned, and the Antigonid kingdom dissolved.

TEMPLE OF HERCULES VICTOR, C. 150 BC





The Temple of Hercules Victor is believed to have been constructed by the Roman general L. Mummius Achaicus, who conquered the Achaeans and destroyed Corinth, to commemorate his victory in the final Macedonian War. This claim finds credibility as the Greek influence in the temple's design, evident from its circular or tholos structure, and its unique status as the only surviving building made of Greek marble in Rome. It is also recognized as the oldest marble structure still standing in Rome. In 1564, an oversized gilded statue of Hercules, currently referred to as the "Hercules of the Forum Boarium," was unearthed near the temple. Given its origin, which is possibly Greece, it further suggests that the temple was erected during the Roman occupation of that region. (The statue is housed in the Capitoline Museum, Rome).

cales, the Romans restored aged Greek structures that had deteriorated and introduced new architectural elements.

Furthermore, Roman governance ushered in the *Pax Romana* — the "Roman peace," marking the lengthiest era of tranquility in Greek history up to that juncture.

Mithridatic Wars on Eastern Frontier

In 88 BC, armies from the kingdom of Pontus, situated in northern Anatolia (modern-day Turkey), invaded Roman territories in Greece. Led by King Mithridates VI Eupator, a descendant of both Macedonian and Persian royals, the invaders emerged as formidable adversaries. Numerous Greek cities sided with the invading monarch, hoping to reclaim their independence from Rome. Their hopes were ill-founded: a Roman contingent repelled Mithridates from Greece, quelling the uprising, devastating Athens in 86 BC, and Thebes the subsequent year.

Ptolemaic Egypt Allies Itself to Rome, 168 BC

Following the successful conclusion of the Seleucid war, Rome established itself as the predominant power in the Mediterranean. Consequently, in 168 BC, Egypt, which was under Ptolemaic rule, formally forged an alliance with Rome. By 168 BC, a vast stretch of the Mediterranean — spanning from Spain, encompassing the Mediterranean coast, including Greece, parts of Turkey, Egypt, and the North African coast up to Tunisia — was either directly governed by Rome or maintained an alliance with it.

Third Punic War — Carthaginians Decimated

The animosity between Carthage and Rome was profound, rendering a simple treaty insufficient to bury past hostilities. Thus, in 146 BC, war between the two entities erupted once more. By this juncture, Rome's strength was immense, leading to a siege and the eventual decimation of Carthage. Rome opted against drafting a treaty this time. To ensure Carthage never posed a threat again, the Romans either executed or enslaved the city's inhabitants, obliterated the city itself, and plowed the land, salting the earth to prevent regrowth.

Romans Name Asia after Incorporation of Pergamum, 133 BC

In 133 BC, Attalus III, the ruler of Pergamum, a significant independent state in central Asia Minor, passed away without leaving an heir. His will entrusted his entire nation to Rome. Following some disputes with relatives, the lion's share of the state's territory was transformed into a new Roman province. This province was christened "Asia", drawing from the original Greek term for parts of the eastern coastline of Anatolia. Subsequently, "Asia" became the designation for nearly all regions situated east of Anatolia. Meanwhile, Anatolia itself was frequently referred to as Little Asia, or Asia Minor.

Civil Strife — The Late Republic, 133–30 BC

The span from 133 to 30 BC is distinguished in Roman chronicles as the Late Republic era. Throughout this period, Rome encountered internal turbulence on a scale unmatched since the Latin uprising against the Etruscans.

Civil War between Plebeians and Patricians

Internal divisions in Rome grew deeper between the patricians and the plebeians, predominantly concerning land distribution. Some patricians recognized the urgent need for reform. The most notable among these was Tiberius Gracchus, who was elected as tribune (a contemporary equivalent might be prime minister) in 133 BC.

The reforms introduced by Gracchus drew the ire of the affluent classes. Consequently, in 134 BC, he was assassinated. His endeavors were subsequently championed by his brother, Gaius Gracchus, who became tribune in 123 BC. Gaius, too, embarked on extensive social reforms, managing to establish a social welfare system. However, this system proved inefficient and almost drained the state's coffers. This only intensified the animosity of the elite, even more than what Tiberius Gracchus faced.

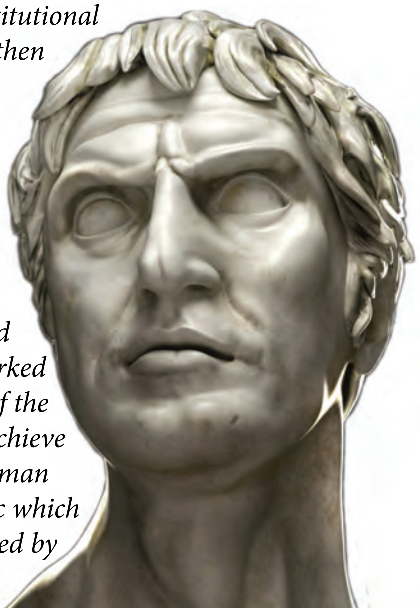
In 121 BC, following an intense bout of civil unrest leading to the death of several thousand of his supporters, Gaius Gracchus took his own life. The tragic demise of the Gracchus siblings signaled the oncoming collapse of the Republican form of government—and civil war in Rome.

Rise of the Generals

By 100 BC, several proficient Roman generals had garnered prominence. They effectively managed and retained the myriad of Roman colonies peppered along the Mediterranean coast. Each general commanded his distinct army. While in theory, they were bound to serve the Roman state, in practice, they wielded their forces as private entities acting in the interests of their respective generals. After several confrontations with rival armies, General Cornelius Sulla emerged as the predominant figure, subsequently establishing himself as Rome's de facto leader. Astonishingly, after rolling out multiple reforms (among which was the augmentation of the senate's authority), Sulla willingly stepped away from the political arena.

THE "GOLDEN-HAIRED" DICTATOR

Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–78 BC), the Roman general with "piercing blue eyes" (Plutarch, Life of Sulla, *Chapter 2, section 1) and "golden hair"* (Ibid, *Chapter 6, section 7), marched on Rome twice due to internal political struggles: once in 88 BC and again in 83 BC. The second time, an open civil war erupted, and Sulla emerged as the victor. He was appointed "dictator" (a legal term in the Republic, granting the officeholder plenipotentiary powers) for an unlimited time, in contrast to the six months specified by the law. He utilized these powers to enact constitutional reforms, and then to everyone's astonishment, he relinquished his powers and retired to his country villa. Sulla's actions and short-lived dictatorship marked the beginning of the use of force to achieve power in Roman politics, a tactic which would be adopted by Julius Caesar.*



It is no coincidence that the motto of the Roman Republic, *Senatus Populusque Romanus*, abbreviated as SPQR, translating to "Roman Senate and People", made its debut in Roman documents and coinage during the Republic's twilight years, specifically from 80 BC onwards. It emblematically hinted at the looming jeopardy faced by the republic.

The troubling trend of political authority, or its potential, being vested in military chieftains signaled the impending doom of the Roman Republic. Apprehensions concerning the Republic's collapse were justified and eventually materialized with the ascent of the most famous general of all: Julius Caesar.

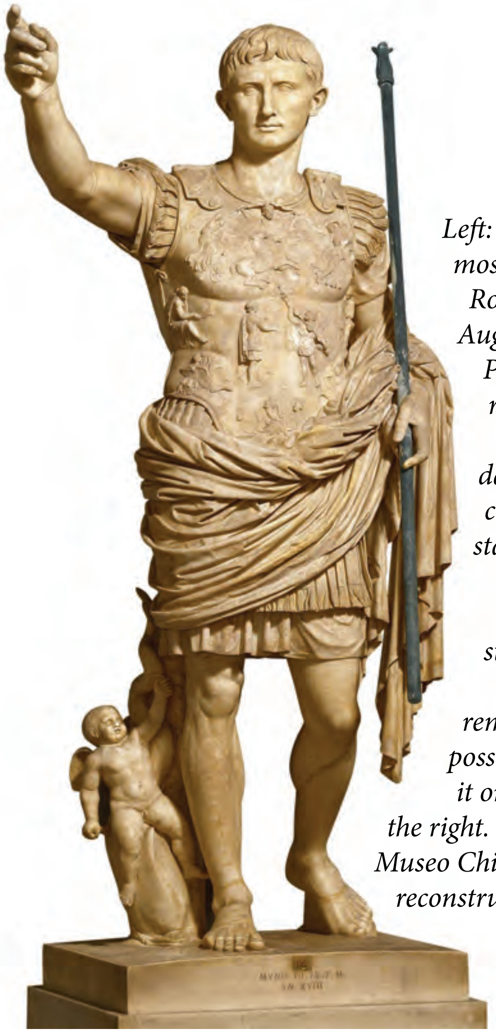
Chapter 14: Crossing the Rubicon—Caesar, Octavian, and the End of the Roman Republic

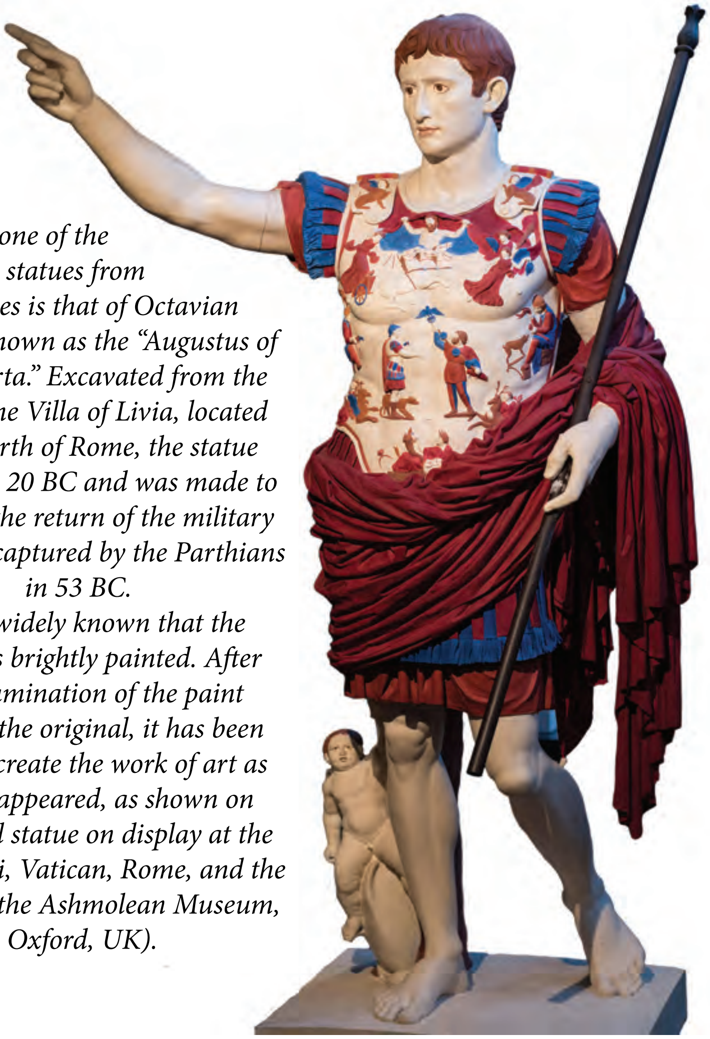
Julius Caesar is the single most important figure in Roman history whose actions led to the collapse of the Roman Republic and its conversion into an autocratic Empire, although he himself was never officially an "emperor."

Born into the Julii family, which claimed descent from the mythological Trojan prince Aeneas, Caesar's early life was not military or political in nature. Appointed as a priest of Jupiter—a religious post—Caesar first came to prominence when he became a victim of one of the "proscription" orders issued by the dictator Sulla in 82 BC, in terms of which he was ordered to resign as a priest. Caesar acceded to the demand, and then wisely left Rome to serve on the staff of the governor of the Roman province of Asia (present-day Turkey).

Military Service in Asia

As with all young Roman men in government service, Caesar was expected to serve with the military, and he took part—as a junior officer—in the 81 BC Siege of Mytilene. Mytilene was the capital of the island of Lesbos, an Ionian outpost, and had rebelled against Roman rule. The rebellion was put down and Roman rule restored.

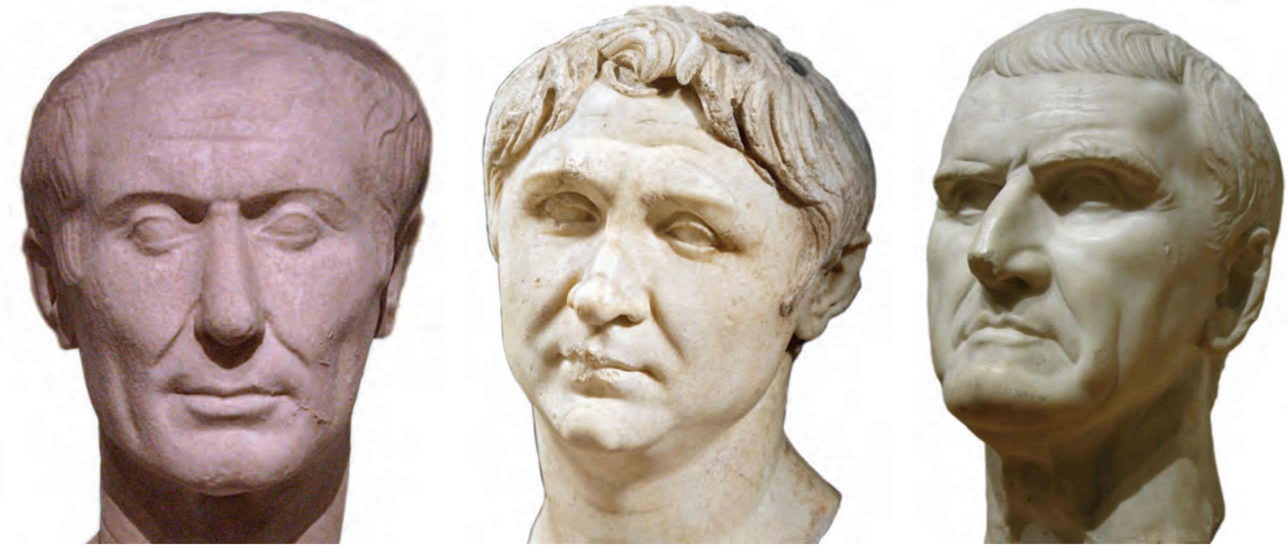




Left: Perhaps one of the most famous statues from Roman times is that of Octavian Augustus, known as the "Augustus of Prima Porta." Excavated from the ruins of the Villa of Livia, located to the north of Rome, the statue dates from 20 BC and was made to celebrate the return of the military standards captured by the Parthians in 53 BC.

It is less widely known that the statue was brightly painted. After close examination of the paint remains on the original, it has been possible to recreate the work of art as it originally appeared, as shown on the right. (Original statue on display at the Museo Chiaramonti, Vatican, Rome, and the reconstruction at the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, UK).

THE "FIRST TRIUMVIRATE": CAESAR, POMPEY, AND CRASSUS



From left to right: The only surviving sculpture of Julius Caesar made during his lifetime, found at the archaeological site of Tusculum in central Italy. From this sculpture, it is clear that most of the other likenesses of Caesar are fairly accurate. (Archaeological Museum, Turin). Center: Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (106–48 BC), better known as Pompey, began his political career under the guidance of the dictator Sulla. This path led him to initially forge a friendship with, and later become a mortal enemy of, Julius Caesar. (Bust of Pompey, bust c. 50 BC. Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen). Right: Marcus Licinius Crassus (115–53 BC) was a Roman General who won fame following his victory over the slave revolt led by Spartacus and served as a Consul alongside Pompey. A member of the informal "First Triumvirate," he was appointed governor of the province of Syria. His death during a campaign in that region heralded the end of the informal alliance and ultimately led to the war between Pompey and Caesar. (Museo Frederic Marès, Barcelona).

During this siege, Caesar was awarded the military decoration known as the "Civic Crown," an award given to Romans who saved the lives of fellow citizens. The "Civic Crown" was literally a golden wreath worn on the head, and Caesar's frequent use of his Civic Crown later led to this symbol being used by all Roman Emperors, and its common representation of Rome in popular history.

Caesar then served in the Roman forces fighting the kingdom of Pontus—called the Mithridatic Wars (after the king of Pontus, Mithridates VI), which were revolts against Roman rule that raged from 88 to 63 BC. The wars ended with Roman victory but were completed long after Caesar returned to Rome following Sulla's death in 78 BC.

Caesar Seeks—and Wins—Elected Offices in Rome

Back in Rome, Caesar first took up an office of pontiff (Latin *pontifex*) in the Temple of Zeus's highest body, the College of Pontiffs, to which he had been elected while serving in Asia.

By the year 71 BC, Caesar was elected one of the military tribunes, another indication of his rising status within the armed forces of Rome. His next office, that of a *quaestor* (an elected officer who supervised public treasuries) in 69 BC for the province of Hispania Ulterior in southern Spain, also brought with it a lifetime seat in the Senate, giving Caesar an even greater public profile.

During this time, Caesar entered into an informal political alliance with Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (106–48 BC), better known as Pompey. The latter was an active politician—and former supporter of Sulla—whose proposed legislation on military matters was always enthusiastically supported by Caesar.

In 65 BC, Caesar was elected as *Aedile* of Rome, responsible for the maintenance of public buildings and the regulation of all public festivals. Two years later, in 63 BC, he stood for election to the offices of Praetor (commander of an army as an elected *magistratus*, or magistrate), and *Pontifex Maximus*

CAESAR'S CAMPAIGN COINS FROM GAUL, 48 BC

Two coins issued by Caesar while he was campaigning in Gaul. The Roman armies had their own portable mints, with which they minted the coins that paid the army—all in silver. The coins both depict Gallic weapons, shields, and, the coin on the right, Gallic prisoners.

(chief high priest of the College of Pontiffs). Despite being opposed in the election by well-known figures, Caesar was elected to both positions.

Once his one-year term as Praetor had been completed, Caesar was then appointed to the post of governor of the province of Hispania Ulterior. There, he led armies against local tribes in northwestern Iberia. In this manner, he effectively expanded Roman control to all of Iberia.

Election as Consul, 59 BC, and the So-Called "First Triumvirate"

Caesar returned to Rome to great acclaim for his conquests in Iberia, and in 59 BC felt confident enough to stand for the office of Consul. He was successful, and, in a move which helped to undermine his political opponents, ordered the minutes of the proceedings of the Senate and all other Assemblies to be made public for the first time.

At this time, Caesar became part of an informal political alliance between himself, Pompey, and Marcus Licinius Crassus (115–53 BC), another politician and general who had held the office of Consul twice. This alliance has been called the "First Triumvirate," although it had no legal standing. With the aid of his allies, Caesar proceeded to force through several social reforms and legislation, all of which proved highly popular in Rome.

Military Campaigns in Gaul

By the end of his year-long consulship, Caesar had been appointed effective control of the growing Roman province of Cisalpine Gaul for a period of five years. This was the region today known as northern Italy, but at that time, it was a Gaulish enclave. It was here that he was to engage in the military campaigns which would propel his political career to the highest office.

His military campaigns in Helvetia (present day Switzerland), Transalpine Gaul (present day France), Germania (present-day Germany), and Britannia (present day Britain) are of such importance that they will be the subject of separate chapters in this work. It is sufficient to say here that his conquests were so spectacular and far-reaching that his popularity back in Rome soared to new heights.

Meanwhile, back in Rome, political disorder had become rife, originating in internal disputes between the plebeian tribune Publius Clodius Pulcher and his opponents, who included the Senator Cicero.

The disorder—which spread into scattered riots between supporters of the factions—was only relieved by the regular news from Caesar, who reported success after success from Transalpine Gaul.

The Roman Senate then took the unprecedented step of honoring Caesar with 15 days of celebrations, and voted to send him state funds to keep his—until then, privately funded—armies supplied.

"Triumvirate" Collapses after Crassus's Death

In 55 BC, Pompey and Crassus were elected Consuls, while Caesar was campaigning in Britannia. The two Consuls then extended Caesar's command in Cisalpine Gaul for an additional five years. However, after Crassus was killed in 53 BC while campaigning in Asia, the relationship between

Caesar and Pompey started to break down. The Consular elections for 52 BC had to be suspended due to the ongoing public unrest, and the Senate then proposed that Pompey be re-appointed as sole consul—something that was unprecedented in Roman Republican history.

Caesar, who had wanted to stand for the office of Consul while still in Cisalpine Gaul, was prevented from doing so by a Pompey-backed law stating that candidates had to be physically present in Rome. This, and other measures introduced by Pompey, gradually wore away his earlier friendship with Caesar. In 50 BC, the two new Consuls for that year (Lucius Aemilius Paullus and Gaius Claudius) were sworn opponents of Caesar.

Despite the latter's popularity among ordinary Romans, the ruling class, which included Pompey, became increasingly fearful of Caesar's influence. They foresaw—correctly, as it turned out—that the prime threat to the establishment was Caesar and his armed forces.

Senate Creates "Consular Army" Against Caesar

In what was to be the prelude to the final collapse, the Senate voted to fund the creation of a "Consular army"—the first in Rome's history, and that it be organized by Pompey. This was in effect a warning to Caesar that any attempt to intimidate Rome would be met with armed resistance.

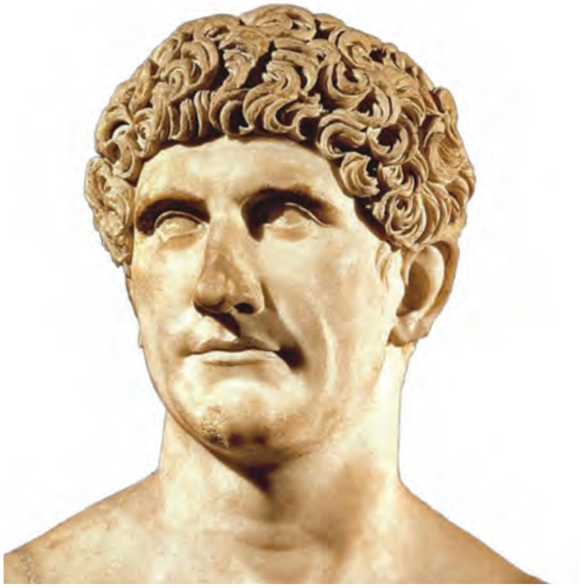
Marcus Antonius (83–30 BC), better known as Mark Antony, a politician who held several important offices in Rome (the most important of which was one of the ten plebeian tribunes for 49 BC), summoned a meeting of the Senate to discuss the growing crisis. He proposed that both Caesar and Pompey lay down their commands simultaneously, a suggestion that won some support, but which was rejected by both Consuls and the famous Senator Marcus Porcius Cato (known as "Cato the Younger").

Antony then made a second proposal, which was also rejected, and he was violently ejected from the Senate meeting which he had summoned. Fearing for his life, Antony fled Rome, and sped to Caesar's military base on the Roman-Cisalpine Gaul border.

Senate Orders Caesar to Rome 49 BC

The Senate reconvened and on January 7, 49 BC, passed a *senatus consultum ultimum* (the "final decree of the Senate") stripping Caesar of his army command and ordering him to return to Rome and stand trial for war crimes. The Senate further declared Caesar a traitor and a public enemy if he did not immediately lay down his command "by a date to be fixed."

MARK ANTONY: FROM ALLY TO FOE



Marcus Antonius (83–30 BC), more commonly known as Mark Antony, served under Julius Caesar during the latter's war in Gaul, and then went on to become an ally of Octavian. A number of disagreements with Octavian eventually led him to become a bitter opponent, and he committed suicide rather than fall into Octavian's hands. This famous bust of Mark Antony dates from around 70 AD, at least a century after his death. (Chiaramonti Museum, Vatican, Rome).

Antony's expulsion was a gift to Caesar: as tribune, Antony's person was sacrosanct in Roman law, and it was illegal to either harm him or refuse to recognize his veto. Saying that this "insult" was to be redeemed, Caesar ordered his army to march on Rome. The Senate responded to this by declaring a state of emergency and granted magistrates full powers with the ability to override existing laws.

Caesar Crosses the Rubicon, 49 BC

On January 10–11, 49 BC, Caesar led his troops across the Rubicon River, a small waterway that marked the boundary between Cisalpine Gaul and Roman territory. This act, in complete defiance of a Senate order telling him not to cross the river, ir-

CLEOPATRA AND CAESAR'S SON

A colossal carving of Cleopatra VII Philopator (51-30 BC) and her son Ptolemy XV Caesarion (44-30 BC) before the gods, on the south exterior wall of the Temple of Dendera, Egypt. Caesarion was her son by Julius Caesar. Ptolemy XV Caesarion reigned with his mother Cleopatra VII from September 44 BC until her suicide on August 12, 30 BC, then as sole ruler until he was assassinated, allegedly upon the order of Octavian.

revocably committed Caesar to war with Pompey and the establishment in Rome.

Even though Caesar's army was smaller, they were all hardened veterans. The Consular army was composed of raw recruits and stood no chance of offering any serious resistance.

Caesar swept down to Rome, and his main opponents—Pompey and some senators—fled the city, realizing too late their error. Pompey managed to escape to Greece, while Caesar ordered his subordinates to subdue Pompey's forces in Iberia and Sicily.

After briefly being declared "dictator" (An official title akin to an emergency ruler, enshrined in Roman law but valid for only six months), Caesar then held elections for the offices of Consul. He stood as a candidate and was easily elected, along with his ally Mark Antony. He immediately left for Greece in pursuit of Pompey and, with a powerful army at hand, ultimately defeated his prime opponent at the Battle of Pharsalus in August 48 BC. Pompey then fled by ship to Egypt, landing in Alexandria, where he was murdered by a Roman soldier serving in the Egyptian army.

Caesar and Cleopatra VII in Egypt

Caesar arrived three days later, unaware of the events that had preceded his arrival. After meeting with the Ptolemaic Queen Cleopatra VII—then currently engaged in a bitter, murderous feud with family members over succession to the throne—Caesar was enamored with her charms and started a sexual relationship with her that resulted in a son, Caesarion.

After leading an army that defeated Cleopatra's rivals at the Battle of the Nile in 47 BC, he installed Cleopatra as ruler of Egypt. Caesar stayed on in Egypt until mid-47 BC and then left for Asia Minor.

"Veni, Vidi, Vici," Victory in Pontus 47 BC

When Caesar reached Asia Minor, he found that an army, drawn up by Pharnaces, the son of the former king of Pontus who had willed his kingdom to Rome, had successfully seized back Pontus. Caesar engaged Pharnaces at the Battle of Zela in northern Asia Minor.

The outcome, which was never in doubt, saw Pharnaces defeated. After the battle, Caesar famously penned perhaps his most memorable quote: *veni, vidi, vici* ("I came, I saw, I conquered"). Having secured the eastern border once again, he returned to Rome.

The Last Stand of the Republicans

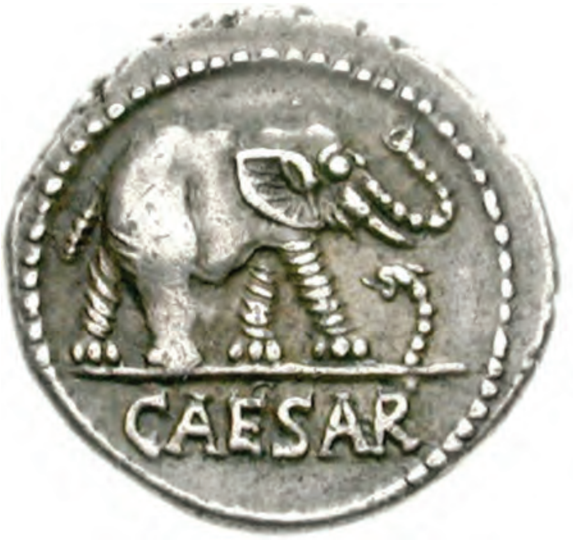
There was still a large amount of dissent back in Rome, with the Republican element once again becoming bolder, especially after Caesar had been re-appointed dictator by the magistrates during his absence in Egypt—this time for a year, in clear violation of the established law which said such an office could only be held for six months at a time.

The Senator Cato had, in the interim, left for the province of Africa, where, along with the remaining Republican armed forces under General Metellus Scipio, prepared for an attempt to re-establish a pure republican form of government. Caesar could not let the problem fester, and in December 47 BC he landed with an army on the coast of the African province, intending to crush his enemies there as he had done in Greece.

After some initial setbacks, he broke the Republican army at the Battle of Thapsus in April 46 BC. Cato and Metellus Scipio committed suicide, and the southern border was secured for Caesar. Meanwhile, the Roman-ruled province of Iberia—captured by the Romans in 206 BC during the Second Punic War—had revolted and had joined the Republican side. In December 46 BC, Caesar then set out to quell this uprising. In March 45 BC, he defeated the last of the rebels at the Battle of Munda in what is today southern Spain. The province of Hispania, as the Romans had named it, was also secured for Caesar.

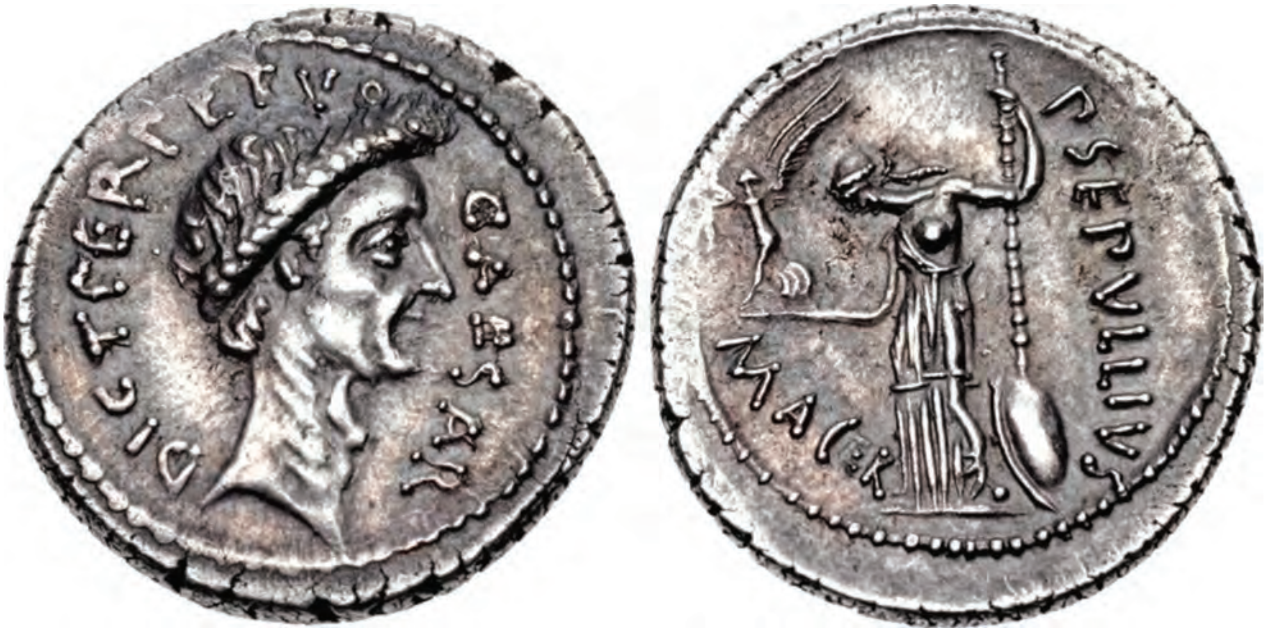
By October of that year, Caesar was back in Rome, basking in the glory of seemingly never-ending victories. His power and influence were such that the Senate then appointed him *Dictator Perpetuo* in February 44 BC—giving him dictatorial powers for life.

CAESAR'S CAMPAIGN COIN FROM NORTH AFRICA, 46 BC



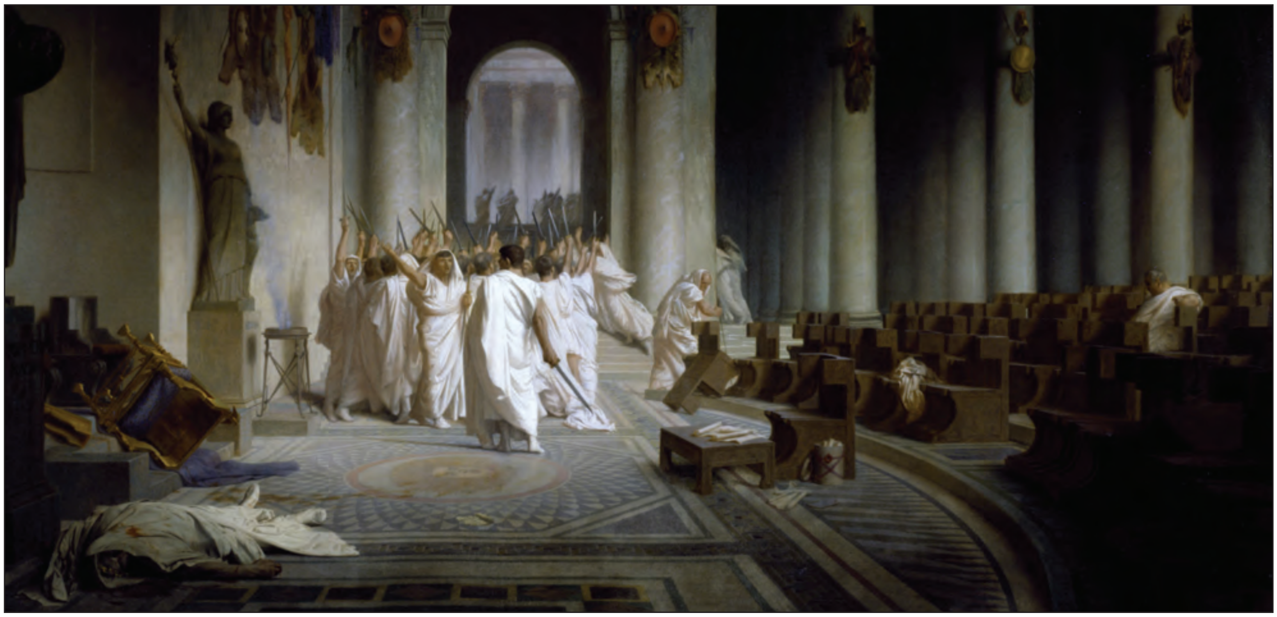
A coin struck by Caesar's army in North Africa, with his name and an elephant on the front. The "African War" of 46 BC saw Caesar defeat the last of the faction which opposed him, including Senator Marcus Cato (the younger). The war ended with a decisive victory for Caesar at the Battle of Thapsus in 46 BC, a battle which saw the last large-scale use of war elephants.

CAESAR: "DICTATOR PERPETUO," OR DICTATOR FOR LIFE, 44 BC



In 44 BC, Caesar was appointed dictator (a legal term meaning a ruler with emergency powers) for life, as dictator perpetuo. This new title was displayed on silver denarii with his face, which appeared in early 44 BC.

THE ASSASSINATION OF CAESAR, MARCH 15, 44 BC



The assassins celebrate in the almost empty senate meeting venue at Pompey's Circus, while Caesar's body lies on the floor next to his overturned gold chair. This remarkably accurate depiction—based on a thorough reading of the ancient record—was made by the French artist Jean-Léon Gérôme (1824–1904) in 1876. (Walters Art Museum, Baltimore, Maryland).

The Ides of March and Caesar's Assassination

The appointment of Caesar as *Dictator Perpetuo*—another unprecedented development—underscored the fact that the Republic was now, for all practical purposes, at an end. Caesar had the power to make laws as he saw fit, without having to first struggle to get Senatorial or Assembly approval.

This reality forced the remaining republicans within Rome to a desperate plan: as all the issues revolved around Caesar the man, the only way forward was to physically eliminate him.

By February 44 BC, there were sixty active conspirators, under the leadership of many prominent figures, such as the Consul for 45 BC, Gaius Trebonius; the Consul for 42 BC, Decimus Brutus; and the Praetors for 44 BC, Senator Gaius Cassius Longinus, and Marcus Junius Brutus, a pontifex, and thanks to his prominence in William Shakespeare's play,[1] the most famous of the plotters.

It was decided to carry out the assassination on March 15, the Ides of March, in the Roman calendar.

The date was chosen only because it was the last Senate meeting scheduled before Caesar was set to depart on a campaign in Parthia on March 18.[2] The Senate building was being repaired at that time, and as a result, the Senate was sitting at another building known as Pompey's Circus, located on the Field of Mars. Caesar had a special chair of gold and was sitting down when he was attacked and stabbed repeatedly by all the conspirators present. He had been dictator for less than two months.

Senate Gives Assassins Amnesty

The assassins presumed that they would immediately be surrounded by grateful senators and acclaimed as liberators, but, to their surprise, the Senate meeting hall emptied in panic. They then decided to appeal to the people and rushed over to the Forum, the city center, daggers still in hand, where they proclaimed to a crowd of onlookers that they had killed a "king and tyrant."

There, however, they received no popular support at all and encountered a good deal of hostility. They then retreated to the Capitoline Hill in the

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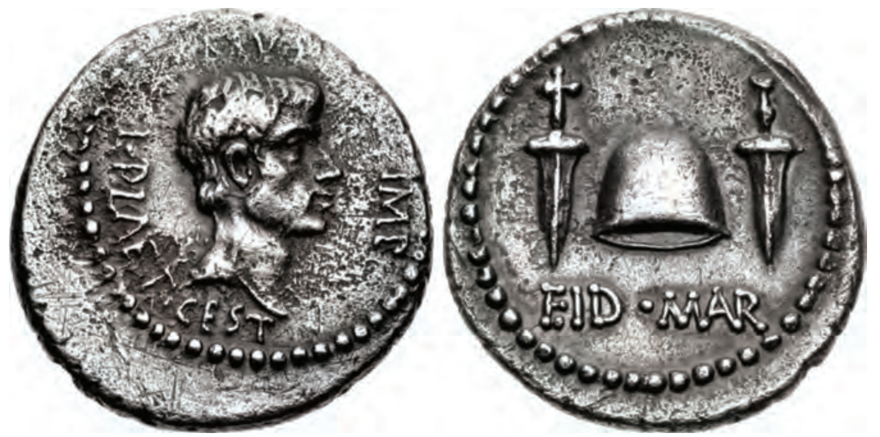
[1] *The Tragedy of Julius Caesar,* William Shakespeare, 1599.

[2] The "Ides" is a day that occurred every month in the ancient Roman calendar. Along with Kalends and Nones, the Ides were markers used to reference dates in relation to lunar phases. The Ides referred to the first full moon of a given month, which usually fell between the 13th and 15th days of that month.

Forum, mainly for protection against the crowd. Over the next two days, confusion reigned, and finally, with both supporters of Caesar and the assassins gathering their forces, the Senate met again on March 17 and declared an amnesty for the assassins.

IDES OF MARCH: BRUTUS'S COIN



Marcus Junius Brutus, one of the most famous of Caesar's assassins, issued a commemorative, but unofficial, denarius coin from 43 to 42 BC to celebrate the murder. The coin featured a bust of Brutus, and on the other side, a pileus cap between two daggers. Under the two daggers was written "Eid Mar," an abbreviation for Eidibus Martiis (the Ides of March). A pileus cap was a Roman symbol of freedom.

Riots Break out after Caesar's Funeral

At Caesar's funeral, his will was read to the public: he left a significant amount of money to be distributed among the citizens of Rome; money to his close friends and supporters, including Mark Antony; money for the building of a public library; and the establishment of a trust for his nephew Gaius Octavius (63 BC–14 AD), who he also named as his adopted son.

Mark Antony, one of the speakers at the funeral, incited the huge crowd against the assassins, sparking off riots against the assassins during which their houses were burned down, forcing them to flee the city.

Senator Cassius and Marcus Brutus fled to Greece, where they believed that they had a significant support base. Even though they did recruit an army, they were mistaken in thinking that they demanded rank and file loyalty.

Octavius Returns to Rome, Becomes Octavian

Octavius, who was only 18 years of age at the time, upon hearing the contents of Caesar's will, immediately set out for Rome from the Roman province of Illyricum (present-day Albania). The sudden promotion to Caesar's heir gave him an immediate benefit: he was now the wealthiest person in Rome, apart from carrying the name of his adoptive father. He also became known as "Octavian" because Roman adoption law required the adoptee to assume the name of the adoptive father. In this manner, Gaius Octavius took the name Gaius Julius Caesar Octavianus, from which the name by which he is best known, originates.

While traveling to Rome, Octavian found great support, especially among the veterans of his father's armies that he encountered along the way and recruited thousands from the army that had been preparing to accompany the expedition to Parthia.

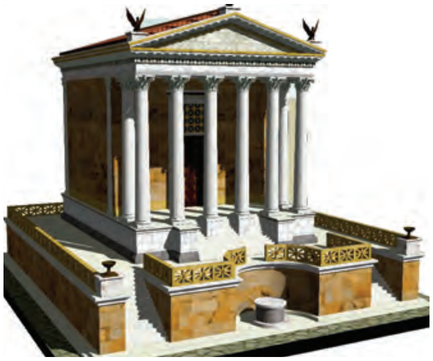
Once in Rome, Octavian found himself in direct competition with Mark Antony for leadership of the "Caesar faction." A period of political intrigue followed, with Mark Antony making some serious errors which eroded his support among the ruling class, and as one of his last acts in office as Consul, managed to get himself appointed as commander in Cisalpine Gaul, a post which had previously been allocated to Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus, one of Caesar's assassins.

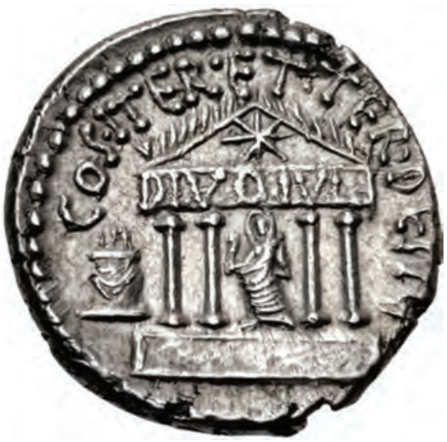
When Mark Antony arrived in Cisalpine Gaul—with an army—he, however, found that Albinus refused to hand over the reins of power. Mark Antony besieged Albinus at Mutina (today the Italian city of Modena), in defiance of an order from the Senate to halt the fighting.

The Senate, however, had no means of enforcing its order, with the "Consular army" having been long since disbanded.

However, Octavian possessed an army, so, in another unprecedented act, the young Caesar heir was appointed as a senator on January 1, 43 BC, along with the title of *imperium pro praetore*, which granted him the power of a Praetor.

TEMPLE OF JULIUS CAESAR IN THE ROMAN FORUM





In 42 BC, the Senate formally deified Julius Caesar as Divus Iulius, *and a temple devoted to his worship was erected on the spot where his body was cremated. Above, the remains of the temple as they can be seen today are shown. Inside the ruins are what appears to be the base of an altar, and even in the present day, admirers of Caesar still leave flowers on the Ides of March each year. Left top: A reconstruction of what the Temple of Julius Caesar looked like when it was completed, based on contemporary descriptions. Left bottom: a contemporary Roman coin depicting the temple, with the words* DIVI IVLI *("Divine Julius"), and showing the "shooting star of Caesar on the pediment. The coin also indicates that there was a statue of Caesar at the front entrance.*

This had the practical effect of legalizing his command of an army, and he was dispatched north to halt the fighting, along with the two then-serving Consuls as co-commanders.

Octavian Marches on Rome

By April 43 BC, Mark Antony's forces were defeated twice, and he was forced to retreat to Transalpine Gaul. However, both the Consuls were killed in the fighting, leaving Octavian in command of the army. This left their offices vacant, and in a bold move, Octavian dispatched a delegation to Rome in July which demanded that one of the vacant offices be given to him and that the decree declaring Mark Antony an outlaw be rescinded.

The demand was rejected by the Senate, and Octavian then marched on Rome with a mighty army composed of eight legions. He entered Rome unopposed, and on August 19, 43 BC, was elected Consul. A close relative of his, Quintus Pedius, was elected as the second Consul. The government of Rome was now firmly in his hands.

Second Triumvirate Formed 43 BC

Octavian then met with Mark Antony and the Roman general Marcus Aemilius Lepidus (who also held the important post of *Pontifex Maximus*) at the city of Bononia (present-day Bologna) in October 43 BC. There, the three men set up an alliance known as the Second Triumvirate.

This alliance—set up to order the affairs of state—was given legal standing by the Senate in November of that year. These powers were granted for a period of five years, apparently in the hope that this would at last stabilize the political situation. The Triumvirate set to work to expel all anti-Caesarian elements by invoking the "proscription" policies pioneered by Sulla. In this way, nearly 2,500 leading members of Roman society, including Senators, had their property seized and were expelled from the city. The really unlucky ones were murdered.

Mark Antony and Octavian then sent a huge army to Greece to deal with the growing might of the forces being assembled by the assassins Cassius and Brutus. In October 42 BC, the Caesarian forces were victorious after two mighty battles at the city of Philippi in Macedonia. Rather than be captured and face the vengeance of Octavian, the assassins Brutus and Cassius committed suicide.

Internal Politics Divides Second Triumvirate

With Brutus and Cassius disposed of, Mark Antony left for Egypt to be with Cleopatra, Caesar's former mistress. He started a relationship with her, and they ended up having three children together. Lepidus went to rule North Africa, while Octavian ruled Gaul and Hispania.

All would have been well but for one issue: the tens of thousands of veterans of the war against Brutus and Cassius now had to be demobilized and pensioned off, and the traditional Roman army service pension consisted of land. The trouble was that there was no more state-owned land in Italy to hand out, and Octavian then ordered the confiscation of privately-owned land for the resettling of the soldiers. This act caused great resentment, as can be imagined, with eighteen whole towns being displaced through the process.

Mark Antony's brother, Lucius Antonius, spoke out against this policy in the Senate, and found majority support for his opinion in that body.

Then, in a move which seemed designed to infuriate the Antony family even more, Octavian divorced his wife Claudia, the daughter of Mark Antony's (legal) wife, Fulvia.

Fulvia and Lucius Antonius then raised an army in Italy and declared their intention to depose Octavian—a move which they assumed would have the support of the majority of the citizenry, given the upset over the army resettlement policy.

After a few opening skirmishes, Octavian's forces besieged Lucius Antonius and Fulvia's army at Perusia (now the town of Perugia in north-central Italy) and forced them to surrender in 40 BC. Lucius was spared because he was Mark Antony's brother, and Fulvia was exiled, but their allies were murdered without mercy. In this way, over 300 Senators and other leading establishment figures were executed for being allies of Lucius, and Perusia was burned to the ground.

Mark Antony Sails for Rome

Mark Antony then sailed for Rome with an army of his own. Landing at Brundisium (today the town of Brindisi on the east coast of the "heel" of Italy's "boot"), the two intended to fight it out. However, their centurions and soldiers, all being Caesarians, refused to fight with each other, and Octavian and Mark Antony then reconciled.

OCTAVIAN AUGUSTUS AS PONTIFEX MAXIMUS

Octavian, now with the title of "Augustus," also became Pontifex Maximus, the head of Rome's religious orders. This famous statue of him as Pontifex, with the traditional priestly veil over his head, was found at the Archaeological Ensemble of Mérida in Extremadura, Spain.

They signed the "Treaty of Brundisium," in terms of which Octavian would remain in the West, Mark Antony in the East, and Lepidus would stay in Africa.

Second Triumvirate Breaks Up

The son of Pompey, Caesar's great opponent, Sextus Pompeius, had in the meantime negotiated a truce with Octavian in terms of which the island of Sicily had been left under his control. The agreement had, however, and not unexpectedly, broken down, and after some grueling battles, Sextus had been defeated and fled to Asia Minor, where he was finally captured and executed.

With Sextus out of the way, Lepidus demanded that Sicily be placed under his control, and ordered Octavian to leave. His troops, however, refused to fight Octavian's forces, and Lepidus was forced to surrender. He was stripped of all his governorship offices and officially ejected from the Triumvirate. His African provinces were then divided between

31 BC BATTLE OF ACTIUM ENDS THE CIVIL WAR

A depiction of the Battle of Actium, which ended thirteen years of civil war in Rome. In this sea battle, the fleet of Octavian defeated that of Mark Antony, and the latter was only saved by ships from Cleopatra's navy that broke through the Roman lines and rescued him. Once back in Alexandria, Egypt, the pair committed suicide rather than fall into the hands of the pursuing Roman forces. (Relief from a Roman monument of the 1st century AD, collection of the Dukes of Cardona, Córdoba, Spain).

Octavian and Mark Antony. This time, Octavian settled the discharged soldiers outside of Italy. Significantly, he also returned 30,000 slaves to their former Roman masters. These 30,000 slaves—an indication of the vast numbers of such persons within Rome—had earlier fled to join Pompeius's army.

Mark Antony Campaigns in Parthia

In the interim, Mark Antony had launched a campaign against the Parthian Empire (that state was located in present-day Iran) in revenge for an earlier Roman defeat. The campaign had not gone well, and he had been forced to call for reinforcements from Cleopatra in Egypt.

In return, he granted the Egyptian leader the title "Queen of Kings" and also made his son the ruler of Armenia after capturing that land.

These actions, and other irritations, caused Octavian to condemn Mark Antony in public early in the year 33 BC during the Senate's opening session. A large number of Senators objected to the public attack and then left Rome for Egypt.

Mark Antony's Secret Will Sparks War

Octavian then forced his way into the Temple of the Vestal Virgins, where he knew Mark Antony's secret will was kept. When he had it in hand, he made its contents public. To everyone's shock, Mark Antony's will gave away Roman-conquered territories to his sons. This proved to be the spark for war, and in 32 BC, the Senate revoked Antony's status as consul and declared war on Cleopatra in Egypt.

31 BC Battle of Actium Ends the Drama

Octavian and his ally, Roman general Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa (63–12 BC), each commanded a land and sea army respectively and trapped Mark Antony and Cleopatra's forces off the coast of Greece. There, at the sea Battle of Actium on September 2, 31 BC, Mark Antony was defeated, and he personally was only rescued by Cleopatra's ships, which were located nearby. Mark Antony and Cleopatra retreated to Alexandria, where, as the now overwhelming Roman forces pursued them, they committed suicide. Rome was now, at last, at the end of 13 years of civil war which had followed the assassination of Julius Caesar.

Octavian Effectively Emperor from 27 BC

Octavian and Agrippa returned to Rome to great accolades as winners of the Civil War, which all hoped were now at an end. They were immediately appointed Consuls by the Senate, a move which would be the first step to Octavian assuming effective control of the now widespread Roman territory.

Rome was still, however, officially a republic, and it was through a series of incremental moves that Octavian became the real power in Rome. For example, he was granted command of the provinces of Hispania and Gaul, Syria, Cilicia (southern Anatolia), Cyprus, and Egypt, in order to restore those regions to order. This ten-year mandate effectively placed him in personal command of most of the Roman provinces, and, significantly, the majority of the Roman legions.

His power and stature increased continuously, and in January 27 BC the now compliant Senate presented Octavian with a new title, "Augustus," which, originating in the Latin *augere* ("to increase"), meant in his person that he was now "illustrious" or even a living near divinity.

He was also given the status of *princeps senatus*, the "leader of the Senate," effectively acknowledging his dominance over that body. In addition, Octavian was also automatically re-appointed Consul every year, another significant change.

Although he personally never took any title apart from *Imperator Caesar divi filius* ("Commander Caesar, son of the deified one"[3]), Octavian never adopted the title of "Emperor of Rome." However, his real powers, all acquired through constitutional steps, meant that he was effectively the first emperor of Rome after the year 27 BC.

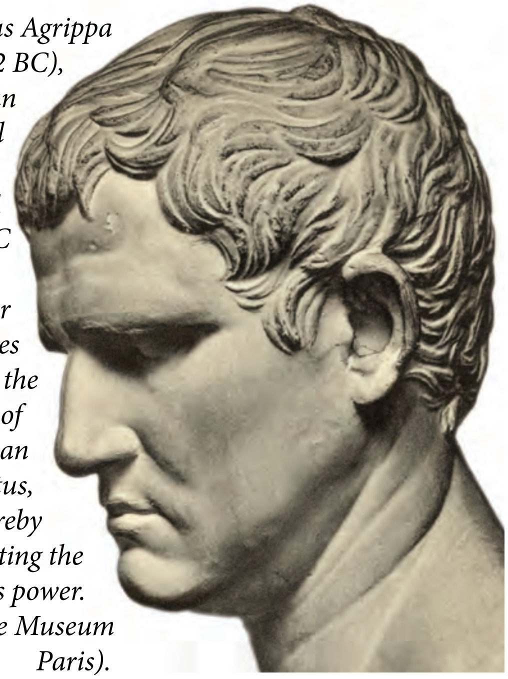
Caesar's Legacy for Rome and the World

Julius Caesar's legacy was profound: in 46 BC, using the advice of the famous Greek astronomer Sosigenes of Alexandria, he revised the Roman calendar into a 365-day solar calendar (which in turn was based upon the original ancient Egyptian system). This system, known as the Julian Calendar, with minor modifications, remained in use in Western Europe until the introduction of the Gregorian Calendar in 1582.

Furthermore, it can be rightly said that Caesar created the Roman Empire, or at least the concept of Roman control over huge territories. His conquests of Gaul (which included present-day France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and parts of Germany) significantly extended Roman territory and paved the way for further Roman expansion.

During his short period of rule at home, Caesar initiated several significant legislative reforms. These included restructuring the Roman debt, land redistribution to veterans and the poor, and the reorganization of local government in numerous municipalities.

MARCUS AGRIPPA, ALLY OF OCTAVIAN


Marcus Agrippa (63–12 BC), Roman general who from 31 to 36 BC won a number of battles against the rivals of Octavian Augustus, thereby cementing the latter's power. (Louvre Museum Paris).

His cultural impact can be measured in the effect of his name. The word "Caesar" became a title for Roman emperors and was adopted in various forms by many other European countries (e.g., "Kaiser" in Germany and "Tsar" in Russia).

Roman Constitutional Changes Linked to Changing Population

The year 27 BC is regarded as the date upon which the Roman Republic effectively came under the control of one person, known as the Principate (from the Latin word *princeps,* meaning first).

The Principate, a period when the rulers of Rome would still maintain the last vestiges of the Republic, would last for over 300 years, but finally be swept away by full autocratic rule in a period known as the Dominate.

As will be demonstrated in a following chapter, all of these developments are directly linked to changes in the racial makeup of the Roman population.

It is sufficient to say here that the gradual transition to autocracy tracked the dissolution of the Roman people into its ever-increasing borders. As racially different peoples swarmed into Rome—particularly from the Middle East—the purely European origin early Republican race of Romans was eventually all but obliterated.

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[3] The Senate had formally deified Caesar as *Divus Iulius* in 42 BC, and Octavian henceforth became *Divi filius* ("Son of the Divine").

Chapter 15: Imperium Romanum—
The Roman Empire 27 BC–476 AD

From the reign of Augustus to the overthrow of the last emperor, Romulus Augustulus, in 476 AD, there were over 70 emperors of what is known as the Western Roman Empire. This number can vary depending on how one counts usurpers, co-emperors, and short-lived reigns.

The overriding characteristic of the Roman Empire was, however, how its decline was clearly linked to its increasing diversity. As the borders expanded, more and more different peoples and races came under its control.

This, combined with the huge slave population, also drawn from all regions of the empire and even sub-Saharan Africa, ultimately led to a racially diverse population. This heterogeneous population was unable to maintain the institutions of ancient Rome, and that once mighty empire collapsed into chaos and ruin.

BLOND-HAIRED, BLUE-EYED OCTAVIAN AUGUSTUS

*Octavian Augustus, the first “emperor,” is described as having blue eyes (*Naturalis Historia*, XI, 143, Pliny the Elder, 78 AD) and blond hair (*Lives of the Caesars*, 79, Seutonis).*

Augustan Age (27 BC to 14 AD)

Octavian Augustus, the nominated successor of Julius Caesar, emerged as the victor of thirteen years of civil war, and established a rule known as the principate, a system where the emperor maintained the illusion of republican rule but held ultimate authority.

Octavian’s reign ushered in the longest period of relative peace and prosperity called the Pax Romana (“Roman Peace”), a long period of relative peace and stability throughout the Empire.

Octavian’s Legacy for Rome

Octavian carried out extensive administrative reforms that created a framework for the governance of the Roman Empire for centuries to come.

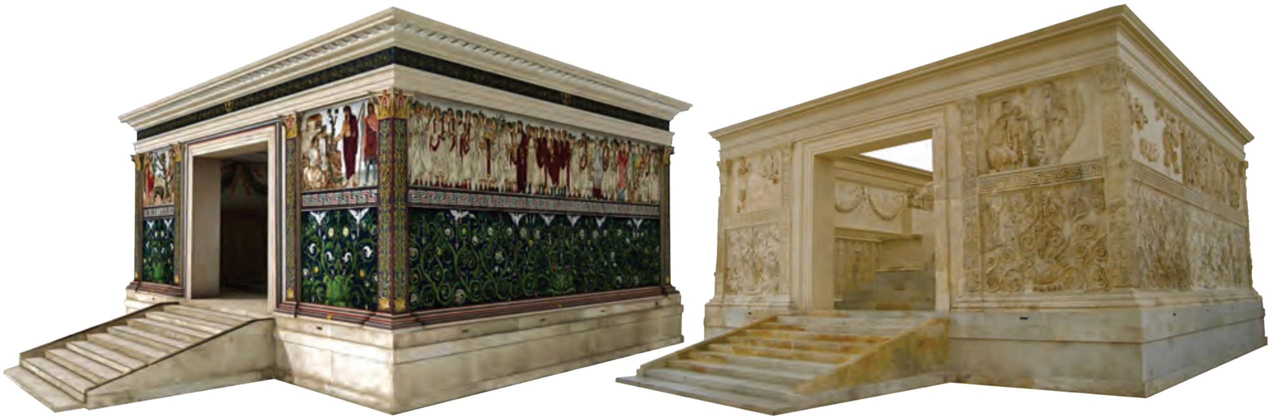
This included the creation of a standing army, the Praetorian Guard, a postal service, and a comprehensive network of roads. He also divided Rome into administrative regions known as “provinces” and established a more effective tax collection system.

He also embarked on a massive building program in Rome, constructing numerous temples, public buildings (such as the Forum of Augustus), and much infrastructure (aqueducts and roads), many of which are still in existence or which have been rebuilt over the centuries but which still follow the original path laid out by the emperor.

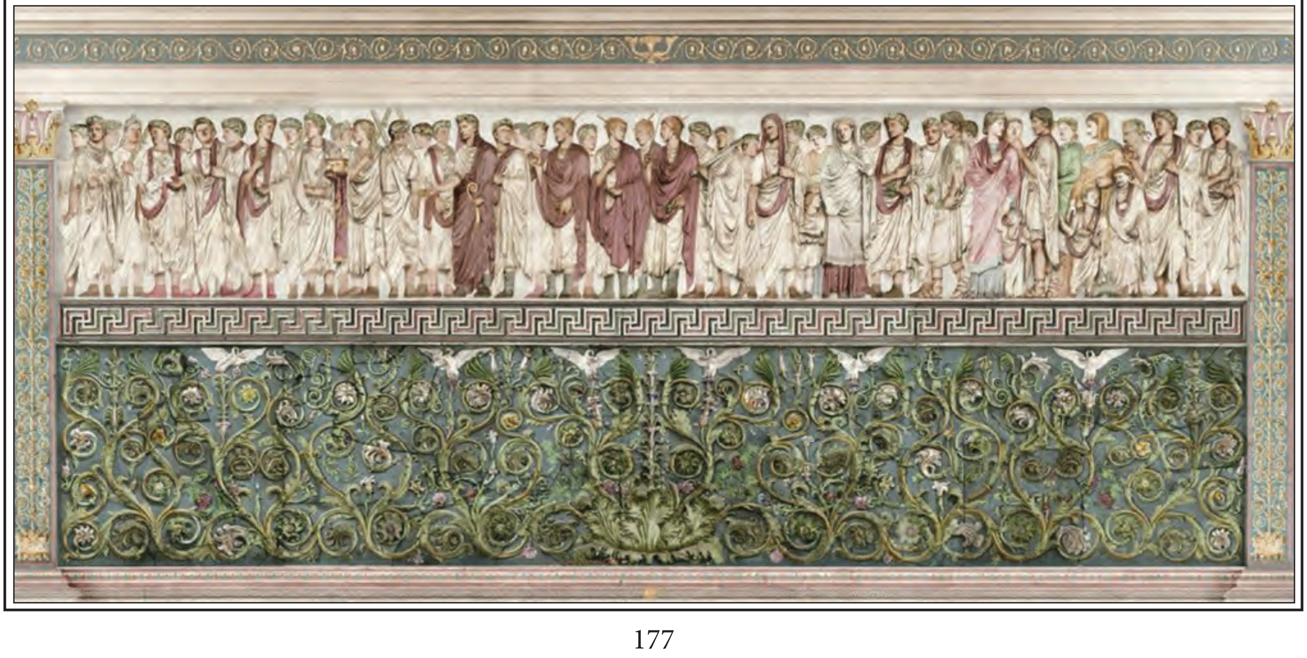
Under his reign, the Roman provinces also saw significant territorial expansion. Egypt was annexed after the defeat of Mark Antony and Cleopatra, making it a Roman province.

He also expanded the Empire into parts of Europe that had not previously been under Roman control, including areas in modern-day Switzerland, Austria, and Hungary.

ARA PACIS AUGUSTAE: THE PEACE OF AUGUSTUS, 9 BC



The Ara Pacis Augustae ("Altar of Augustan Peace") was a monument commissioned by the Roman Senate to honor Augustus's arrival back in Rome after three years in Hispania and Gaul. Officially opened in January 9 BC, the huge monument stood on the northern outskirts of Rome. Over the centuries, as the Roman population changed beyond recognition, the monument fell into disuse and was eventually buried under the silt deposits of the Tiber River. It was excavated in sections from 1568 on, and although all the pieces have never been recovered, enough have for it to be reassembled. The reconstructed monument, using all available original parts, was opened to the public in 1938. Above right, the monument as can be seen today, and above left, reconstructed in its original color. Below, some original panels, and reconstructions in color.



BLUE-EYED AND BLOND HAIRED ROMAN EMPERORS

*From left to right: [1] Emperor Tiberius (reigned 14–37 AD) had blue eyes (*Naturalis Historia, *142, Pliny the Elder.) [2] Emperor Caligua (reigned 37 to 41 AD), is described as being “golden bearded.” (*Lives of the Caesars, *52, Suetonius). [3] Emperor Claudius (reigned 41–54 AD), is described as being blue-eyed (Chronographia, X, 246, John Malalas). [4] Emperor Nero (reigned 54–68 AD), is described as being blond and blue-eyed (Lives of the Caesars, 51, Seutonis).*

The most far-reaching military venture of his reign was, however, the Roman attempt to expand east of the Rhine River. This ended in the annihilation of three legions by the Germans and permanently established the Roman border on the Rhine River.

Octavian Attempts to Increase Original Roman Population

Octavian was aware of the importance of racial demographic changes in Roman society, which were already underway during his reign. These changes were primarily driven by two factors: the widespread use of slaves from all parts of the world (which included Gauls, Germans, Middle Easterners, and Africans); and the flood of foreigners who poured into Rome as the Empire's borders expanded.

In an attempt to boost the original Roman population, Octavian enacted a series of laws aimed at promoting traditional Roman moral values. The “Leges Juliae” or Julian Laws (named after his family) included laws on marriage, adultery, and social behavior, which aimed at encouraging marriage and increasing the birthrate among the Roman upper classes. This attempt was unsuccessful, and the original Roman population continued to decline.

Julio-Claudian Dynasty (14–68 AD)

Octavian's peaceful death in 14 AD saw the introduction of what became known as the Julio-Claudian Dynasty. This consisted of four rulers who took on the trappings and role of fully-fledged emperors.

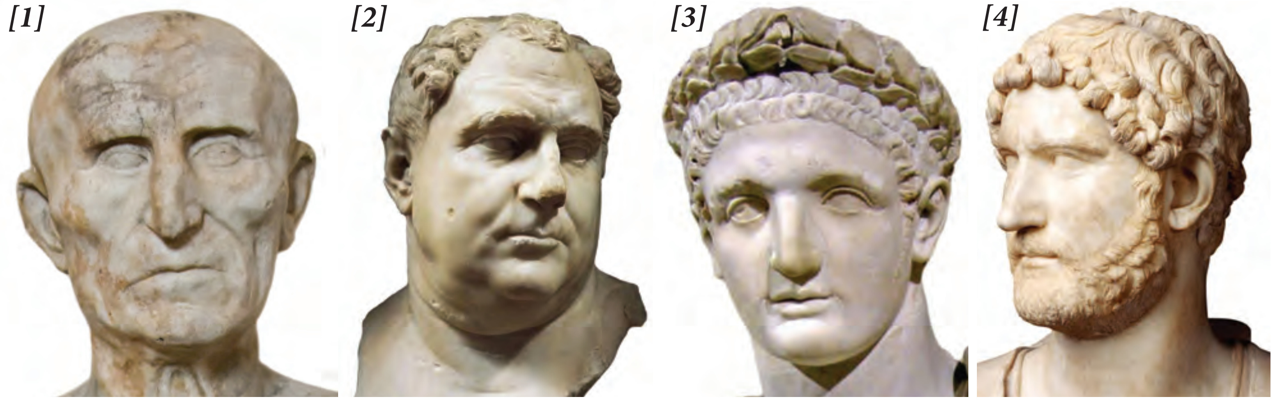
Emperor Tiberius (reigned 14–37 AD), was Octavian's stepson and nominated heir. He was an efficient ruler, with a conservative foreign policy that saw only limited excursions into Germany.

His most notable domestic act was to start living on the island of Capri, ruling Rome by correspondence, and thereby greatly increasing the power of the Praetorian Guard in Rome, whose chief acted as his representative. This would later set the precedent for the Praetorian Guard playing a major role in the selection of emperors.

Emperor Caligula (reigned 37–41 AD) was the great-grandson of Octavian. Caligula's brief reign is infamous for its alleged extreme brutality, extravagant expenditures, and his purported madness, although the sources which claim this about his reign were written decades and sometimes centuries after his rule and could be highly sensationalized. Whatever the truth of the allegations, Caligula was assassinated by a conspiracy of Praetorian Guard officers, senators, and courtiers in 41 AD. An attempt to restore the Republic upon his death was thwarted when the Praetorians declared Caligula's uncle, Claudius, as the next emperor.

Claudius (reigned 41–54 AD), was possibly the most efficient and able Emperor of all, whose conservative rule boosted the economy. The most significant foreign policy development was his 43 AD

BLUE-EYED AND BLOND HAIRED ROMAN EMPERORS



*From left to right: [1] Emperor Galba (reigned 69 AD), is described as being blue-eyed (*Lives of the Caesars*, 21, Seutonis). [2] Emperor Vitellius (reigned 69 AD) is described as being redheaded and blue-eyed (*Chronographia*, X, 259. John Malalas). [3] Emperor Domitian (reigned 81–96 AD) is described as being blond and blue-eyed (*Chronographia*, X, 262 John Malalas). [4] Emperor Hadrian (reigned 117–138) is described as being blue-eyed (*Chronographia*, XI, 277, John Malalas).*

ordering of the completion of the occupation of Britain, begun by Julius Caesar approximately one hundred years earlier.[1]

Nero (reigned 54 to 68 AD) is perhaps one of the most maligned emperors of all time. The accounts of his tyranny and extravagant spending were also written decades after his reign and could very well be influenced by his persecution of the Christians, who at that stage were an unwelcome minority in Rome, that cult (as it was then) having spread from its origin in Judea.[2] Nero's reign was marked by the Great Fire of Rome in 64 AD, which lasted for six days and seven nights, causing widespread devastation. Nero claimed to have evidence that the Christians had started the fire and ordered a renewed persecution of that group. The phrase "Nero fiddled while Rome burned" has its origins in this event, but this, like many other anecdotes about Nero's reign, is an invention; fiddles did not exist in Nero's time, and there is no evidence that he was involved in starting the fire. In fact, he personally paid for much of the rebuilding of Rome following the fire, and for the provision of food to the Romans who had lost their livelihood in the blaze.

His reign must, however, have been the cause of significant discontent, as in 68 AD, the governor of Gaul, Vindex, rebelled against Nero's rule, and the governor of Hispania, Galba, was declared emperor by his troops. The Senate then declared Nero a public enemy, and the Praetorian Guard shifted their allegiance to Galba. Facing public revolt and abandonment by his guards and the Senate, Nero reportedly committed suicide on June 9, AD 68.

Year of the Four Emperors, 69 AD

After the death of Nero, Rome experienced a chaotic year in which four different men claimed the title of emperor: Galba, Otho, Vitellius, and Vespasian. Vespasian emerged as the victor and established the Flavian dynasty.

Flavian Dynasty (69-96 AD)

Vespasian (reigned 69-79 AD) was proclaimed emperor by his troops while he was in Judaea, where he was suppressing the Jewish Revolt.[3] He restarted orderly government and founded the Flavian dynasty, which lasted until 96 AD.

His most famous and lasting contribution, however, was the building of the Colosseum in Rome, a building which has become, for many, the symbol of the Roman Empire and which mostly still stands today. The Colosseum's real name is the Flavian Amphitheater, and it only took on the name of the "Colosseum" after a colossal statue of Nero, which stood outside the building for many centuries.

Titus (reigned 79-81 AD), Vespasian's son, was the one who completed the suppression of the Jewish Revolt in Judea. His brief reign was marked by

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[1] See Chapter 17.

[2] See Chapter 23.

[3] See Chapter 23.

BLUE-EYED ROMAN EMPERORS

*From left to right: [1] Emperor Nerva (reigned 96–98 AD) is described as having gray-blue eyes (*Historia Augusta, *Life of Nerva, 3.3). [2] Emperor Trajan (reigned 98–117 AD) is described as having blue eyes (*Historia Augusta, *Life of Trajan, 2.6). [3] Emperor Marcus Aurelius (reigned 161–180 AD) is described as having blue eyes (*Historia Augusta, *Life of Marcus Aurelius, 3.6). [4] Emperor Commodus (reigned 180–192 AD) is described as having blue eyes (*Chronographia, *XII, 283, John Malalas).*

the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in AD 79, which destroyed the towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum, a major fire in Rome in AD 80, and a plague in AD 81.

Domitian (reigned 81-96 AD), the younger son of Vespasian, succeeded his older brother. His reign was marked by increased authoritarianism, which included the execution of several dissenting Senators. He was ultimately assassinated, and the Senate quickly declared him a posthumous public enemy, with the memory of his reign being officially condemned, a process known as *damnatio memoriae.*

Perhaps the most significant development of the Flavian Dynasty was that they were not from a traditional Roman aristocratic family, and their rise to power represented a trend toward emperors rising through the military ranks.

Nervan-Antonian Dynasty: The "Five Good Emperors" (96–192 AD)

Following the Flavian line came the Antonines—or the "five good emperors," who ruled from 96 to 192 AD. The first of these was the emperor Nerva, who ruled from 96–98 AD. Nerva was also the first emperor to allow members of the Roman Senate to be chosen from all over the empire, and not just from the old established noble families of Rome.

This was a significant step, as the empire extended into territories such as North Africa and the Middle East, all of which had long since lost their significant white majority populations. Nerva's rule marked the first appearance of non-Romans—and non-whites—in the Senate, and hence the government, of Imperial Rome. This process meant that by the end of the second century AD, senators of pure Roman descent were in the minority in that body.

Roman Empire Reaches Territorial Height under Trajan 117 AD

The empire reached its peak in terms of territorial expansion under the next emperor, Trajan, who ruled from 98–117 AD. He is best known for his extensive military campaigns and significant building projects.

He waged two major campaigns against the kingdom of Dacia (present-day Romania), which had been a long-standing threat to Rome. These campaigns resulted in the annexation of Dacia, the securing of the empire's northeast border, and gained control of valuable gold mines.

Trajan also waged a successful war against Rome's long-standing rival in the East, the Parthians, from 113–117 AD. The Parthian capital, Ctesiphon, was captured, and the region was declared as the new Roman province of Mesopotamia, which reached as far as the Persian Gulf.

At home, Trajan initiated significant building projects, most notably Trajan's Forum in Rome, which included a grand complex of markets (Trajan's Market) and a large column (Trajan's Column) commemorating his victory in the Dacian Wars.

This column, which still stands today, is a significant monument of Roman art and a valuable historical record, as it contains a continuous frieze depicting scenes from the Dacian campaigns.

Hadrian Attempts to Reduce Empire's Size

Trajan appointed Hadrian (reigned 117 to 138 AD) as his successor. Hadrian is best noted for his consolidation of the Empire, rather than its further expansion. In this regard, he ordered the building of a massive fortification across the northernmost border of the Empire in Britannia, later called after him as "Hadrian's Wall."

In addition, Hadrian ordered the withdrawal of the eastern border of the Empire back to the Euphrates River, giving up territories of Armenia and Mesopotamia.

At home, he engaged in a number of great building projects, including the 250-acre complex today known as "Hadrian's Villa" at Tivoli, and the final form of the famous Pantheon in Rome, which was completed in 128 AD. In addition, Hadrian commissioned the building of libraries, theaters, and temples all over the Empire.

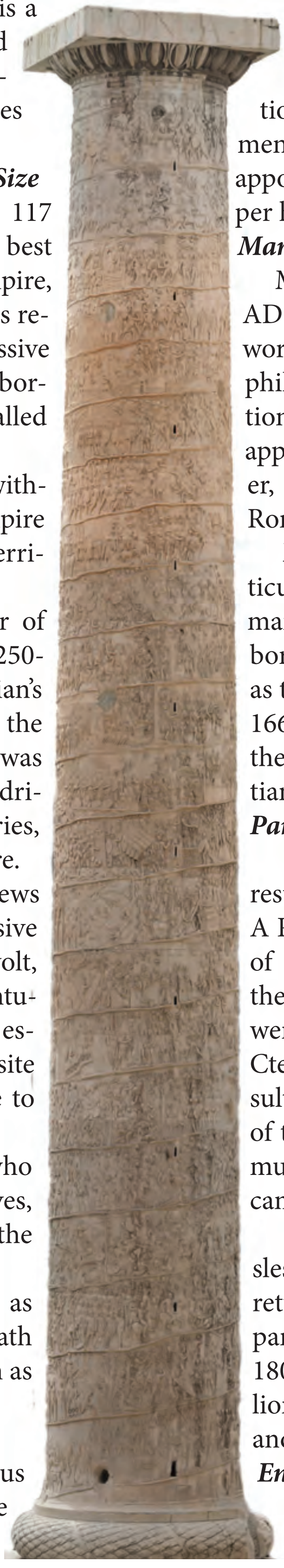
It was also during his reign that the Jews in the province of Judaea staged a massive uprising, known as the Bar Kokhba Revolt, from 132-136 AD. This revolt was eventually crushed, but it triggered Hadrian's establishment of a Roman colony on the site of Jerusalem, which included a temple to Jupiter.

Hadrian was an active legislator who passed laws aimed at protecting slaves, clarifying property rights, and limiting the death penalty.

Hadrian adopted Antoninus Pius as his son and successor, and after his death was buried in a mausoleum now known as Rome's Castel Sant'Angelo.

Antoninus Pius: Peace and Prosperity

The reign of Emperor Antoninus Pius (reigned 138 to 161 AD) might well be regarded as the apogee, or high point, of the Roman Empire. His nearly 23-year reign was one of the most peaceful in the history of the Roman Empire. He managed to avoid major military conflicts, focusing instead on consolidation, administration, and internal development of the Roman state. Upon his death, he appointed Marcus Aurelius as his successor, as per his undertaking to Hadrian.



TRAJAN'S COLUMN, ROME, 113 AD

Marcus Aurelius: The Philosopher Emperor

Marcus Aurelius (reigned from 161 to 180 AD) was renowned as a philosopher, with his work *Meditations* being an outline of Stoic philosophy and ethical guidelines. In addition, he set a new administrative precedent by appointing Lucius Verus, his adoptive brother, as co-emperor, marking the first time Rome was ruled by two emperors.

Marcus Aurelius fought many wars, particularly in the north, where assorted Germanic tribes were pressing upon the Empire's borders. These conflicts, known collectively as the Marcomannic Wars, were fought from 166-180 AD against Germanic tribes such as the Marcomanni, the Quadi, and the Sarmatians.

Parthian War Results in Antonine Plague

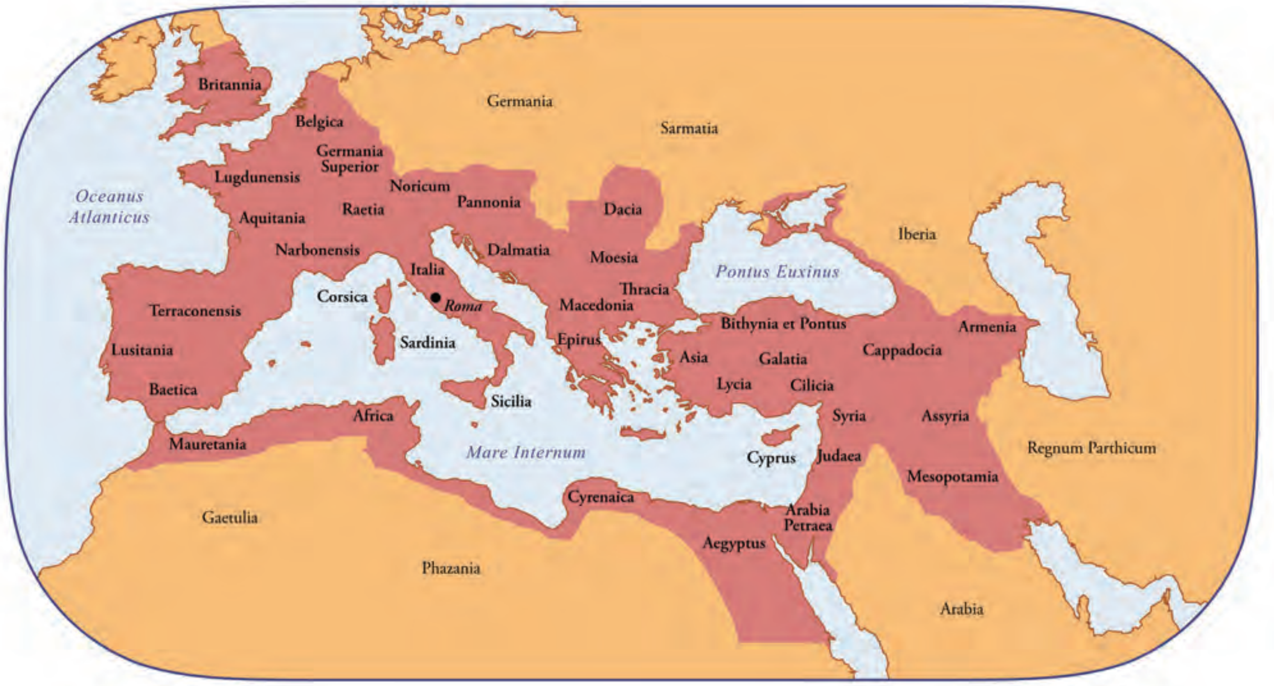
To the east, renewed Parthian aggression resulted in yet another war with that empire. A Roman army, under the overall command of Lucius Verus, first seized Armenia and then advanced into Parthia. The Parthians were unable to resist, and their capital city, Ctesiphon, was taken once again. The war resulted in the extension of the eastern border of the Empire to western Mesopotamia, but, much more importantly, resulted in what became known as the Antonine Plague.

This disease, possibly smallpox or measles, was brought back to Rome by soldiers returning from this campaign and spread in pandemic proportions in Rome from 165 to 180 AD. It is estimated to have killed millions, dramatically affecting Roman society and demographics.

End of the Pax Romana

The death of Marcus Aurelius (in the Roman city of Vindobona, today known as Vienna), marked the end of the *Pax Romana*. The greatest period of Roman

EMPIRE OF THE CAESARS—THE EXTENT OF ROMAN CIVILIZATION CIRCA 150 AD


Britannia
Germania
Sarmatia
Belgica
Germania Superior
Lugdunensis
Noricum
Pannonia
Oceanus Atlanticus
Aquitania
Raetia
Dacia
Iberia
Narbonensis
Dalmatia
Moesia
Italia
Pontus Euxinus
Thracia
Corsica
Roma
Macedonia
Terraconensis
Bithynia et Pontus
Armenia
Sardinia
Epirus
Lusitania
Asia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Baetica
Lycia
Cilicia
Sicilia
Africa
Syria
Assyria
Mauretania
Mare Internum
Cyprus
Judaea
Regnum Parthicum
Mesopotamia
Cyrenaica
Gaetulia
Arabia Petraea
Aegyptus
Phazania
Arabia

The furthest extent of the empire's borders, with names as given by the Romans to the various regions. Within 80 years, all people within these borders were declared Roman citizens (in 212 AD). This led to the final merging of the original Roman people into a multi-racial state, ultimately resulting in the disappearance of "Romanism" and the fall of the empire.

history was now past, and from this time on, the Empire would enter its decline.

This decline was linked to the racial demographic changes that were then sweeping through the Empire, a direct product of its size and the use of slaves. Both factors meant that huge numbers of racially foreign peoples from the far-flung corners of the Empire were pouring into Rome, and that city became increasingly racially diverse.[4]

The Roman historian Tacitus (56–120 AD) had provided an early glimpse of the decay in Rome in his work the *Annals*, in which he described the city as a place "to which all things horrible or shameful flow and are celebrated."[5]

By the year 200 AD, Rome was the largest and most cosmopolitan city of its time. As the empire's capital, it was a magnet for people from all over the Mediterranean world and beyond, and its population was diverse and fluid.

In addition to the vast number of immigrants, all Roman sources indicate that between 30 and 40 percent of the city's population of over one million were slaves. These slaves, drawn from every part of the Empire, included significant numbers of non-Europeans, from the Middle East, North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa, as the Roman records definitively show.

Reign of Commodus Marks Turning Point

In line with Rome's increasing racial diversity, the period after Marcus Aurelius, starting with his son Commodus, was marked by increasing instability. Commodus (reigned 180-192 AD), is considered one of Rome's most notorious emperors, and his reign marked the great watershed when Rome transitioned from a stable and prosperous empire into a period of crisis.

Commodus was infamous for his eccentric and near megalomaniacal behavior. He saw himself as a living god, specifically identifying himself with Hercules, and he insisted on being worshipped as such. He renamed Rome as *Colonia Commodiana* (the "Colony of Commodus") and attempted to rename the months of the year after his own adopted names.

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[4] For genetic evidence of this diversity, see Chapter 20.

[5] Tacitus, *Annals,* XIV.44.

As his reign progressed, Commodus' behavior became increasingly erratic and tyrannical. Finally, he was assassinated by being strangled to death by Narcissus, a wrestler with whom he trained. His death marked the end of the Nerva-Antonine Dynasty and was followed by a period of civil strife and instability known as the Year of the Five Emperors.

The Severan Dynasty: The First Mixed-Race Rulers of Rome

The Severan Dynasty, which lasted from 193 to 235 AD, and named after its first emperor, Septimius Severus, were notable because it was the first set of rulers who represented the racially diverse background of the population of Rome. Four of the five Severan emperors were born in the Middle East or North Africa, and this origin shows up clearly in their physical features on contemporary portraits.

Septimius Severus: Phoenician and Berber Origin Emperor

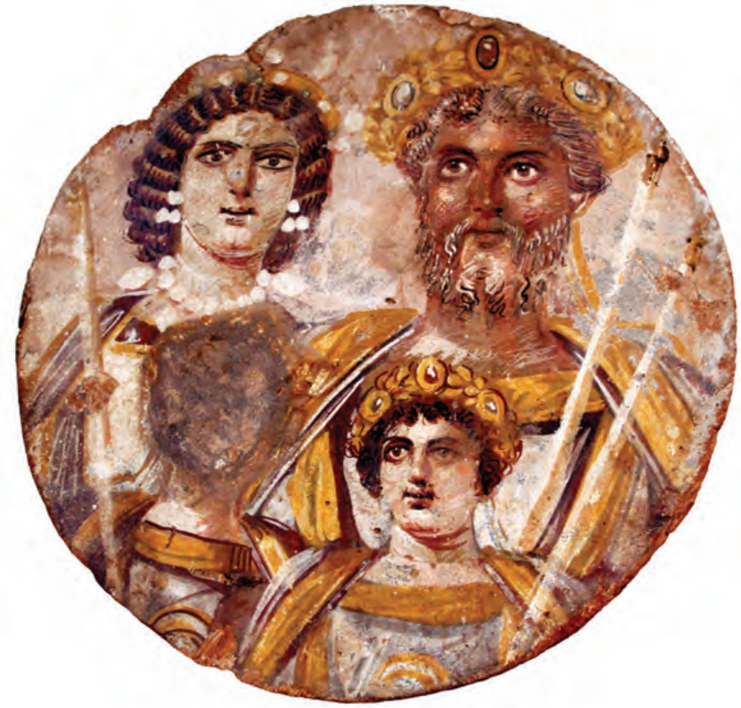
Septimius Severus (reigned 193–211 AD) was the victor in the short period of conflict between several claimants to the imperial throne following Commodus's murder. Severus was born in Leptis Magna in the Roman province of Africa (present-day Libya), and his family was of Punic and Berber descent. By this period in history, both "Phoenicians" and "Berbers" were of mixed racial origins.

Severus's reign was marked by several wars, including a response to repeated aggressions from the Parthian Empire. He led an army that sacked the Parthian capital Ctesiphon in 198 AD.

In the interim, a former ally of his in Gaul, Clodius Albinus, declared himself emperor in Severus's place, and the usurper had to be defeated by a new military excursion. Severus then tried to invade Scotland, but after several unsuccessful campaigns was forced to abandon the plan.

Severus's wife, Julia Domna, was from Syria. They had two sons, Caracalla and Geta. Upon Severus's death in 211 AD, he asked for his two sons to be declared co-emperors.

NORTH AFRICAN ORIGIN EMPEROR SEPTIMUS SERVUS, 193 AD



The Phoenician and Berber origin of Emperor Septimius Severus is clear in his complexion, as shown on this well-preserved "tondo" (circular) painting from circa 200 AD. The painting is of Septimius Severus with his family: to the left his wife Julia Domna, in front of them their sons Geta and Caracalla. Geta's face was removed after his murder by his brother Caracalla and the ensuing damnatio memoriae. *The image is probably an example of imperial portraits that were mass-produced to be displayed in offices and public buildings throughout the empire, to fulfill the Roman legal requirement that certain documents had to be signed in front of an image of the Emperor, which gave them the same status as if signed in his actual presence. (Antikensammlung, Berlin, Germany).*

Caracalla Extends Roman Citizenship to Entire Empire, 212 AD

As Severus had requested, he was initially followed on the throne by his sons, Caracalla (reigned 211–217 AD) and Geta. Caracalla, however, was unhappy with the arrangement and had his brother Geta murdered in 211. One of Caracalla's most significant acts was the issuance of the *Constitutio Antoniniana* (Antonine Constitution) in 212 AD, which granted Roman citizenship to all free men within the Roman Empire.

This was a revolutionary act, which directly led to the final dissolution of the original Roman pop-

"BLACK-EYED" EMPEROR CARACALLA EXTENDS ROMAN CITIZENSHIP TO ALL IN EMPIRE 212 AD

*Emperor Caracalla (reigned 198 217–AD) described as having "black eyes" (*Historia Augusta*, Life of Caracalla, 5.7), was the son of Septimus Servus. His mixed racial origin showed clearly in busts and statues. Above, an original bust and a reconstruction based on the bust and ancient descriptions. Caracalla extended Roman citizenship to all free persons within the borders of the Roman Empire, directly leading to the final dissolution of the original Roman population.*

ulation in a flood of foreigners that would quickly overwhelm the last vestiges of the original Roman people.

Caracalla was assassinated while on campaign in the East, reportedly in a plot organized by his Praetorian Prefect, Macrinus.

Macrinus, who had been born in Caesarea (present-day Cherchell, Algeria) in the North African Roman province of Mauretania, was then declared emperor by the army, but he did not last long. After only 14 months in office, he was also assassinated after losing the support of the army.

Middle-East Born Emperor Elagabalus Tries to Introduce Syrian God

Elagabalus (reigned 218–222 AD) was the next emperor. Born in Emesa, in the Roman province of Syria, he was a cousin of Caracalla. He is best known for his attempt to replace the traditional Roman pantheon of gods with the worship of the Syrian sun god Elagabal, of whom he had been a high priest in his home town. This attempt was met with strong resistance, even in multi-cultural Rome, and this, combined with his extravagant lifestyle, resulted in his alienation from the Senate, the Praetorian Guard, and the general populace.

Finally, a mutiny in the Praetorian Guard saw Elagabalus and his mother captured, dragged through the streets of Rome, murdered, and then thrown into the Tiber River.

Lebanon-Born Severus Alexander and the Start of the Collapse

Elagabalus's cousin, Severus Alexander (reigned 222 to 235 AD), was then proclaimed emperor by the Praetorian Guard. Even though he had been born in the Phoenician city of Arca Caesarea (present-day Akkar, in Lebanon), he wisely reversed his cousin's attempts to make the Romans worship a Syrian god and restored the Roman pantheon of gods. Severus spent most of his reign seeing off military invasion threats from a new Persian empire in the east and from Germanic tribes pushing south from Germania.

After several ineffective campaigns along the Rhine frontier, Severus Alexander was assassinated during a mutiny of his own troops (the Roman camp was located near the present-day German city of Mainz). The troops then declared Maximinus Thrax, a general in the army, as emperor.

Severus Alexander's murder marked the start of a period known to history as the "Crisis of the Third Century," which would be the penultimate act in the collapse of Rome.

25 Emperors in 50 Years

The Crisis of the Third Century, also known as the "Imperial Crisis," was a period of just under 50 years during which the empire teetered on total collapse. It was marked by a rapid turnover of emperors, with over 25 claimants to the title of Emperor, most of whom were military generals.

Philip "the Arab" Becomes Emperor

One of the 25 emperors during this period of crisis was also known as Marcus Julius Philippus, also known as Philip "the Arab" (reigned 244–249 AD), because he was born in the Roman province of Arabia Petraea (which consisted of the territories today called southern Jordan, southern Palestine, the Sinai Peninsula and the northwest of the Arabian Peninsula. Its capital was the famous city of Petra, now in Jordan).

Elected emperor by the army after the death of his predecessor while campaigning against the Persians, Philip immediately made peace with the Persian king, conceding territory to the latter and leaving immediately for Rome.

His reign was however short, like so many of his contemporaries, and by 248 AD, the legions of Roman provinces, particularly in the Danubian and Balkan areas, were in revolt due to dissatisfaction with Philip's rule and the broader instability of the empire.

Finally, in 249 AD, one of Rome's generals, Decius, was proclaimed Emperor by his troops. Decius moved with his forces toward Rome, leading to a clash with Philip's forces.

Philip was defeated and killed in battle near Verona in September 249 AD. His son and co-emperor, also named Philip, was killed shortly after in Rome.

SYRIAN-BORN "BLACK-EYED" EMPEROR ELAGABALUS, 218 AD

IMP ANTONINVS PIVS AVG

*The Emperor Elagabalus (reigned 218–222 AD), who had black eyes (*Historia Augusta, *Life of Elagabalus, 6.6), was born in Emesa (today the city of Homs) in Syria. He was but one of a line of Emperors from the Middle East, an indication of the extent to which the original population of Rome had been displaced by racial newcomers.*

Unrest all over the Empire

At the same time, the empire faced invasions on multiple fronts: Germanic tribes pressed on the Rhine and Danube frontiers, the Sassanian Empire in the East was a persistent threat, and in the South, tribes from the Sahara were penetrating the African provinces.

The Goths notably began raiding across the Danube, culminating in the catastrophic Battle of Abritus in 251 AD, where the Roman army was defeated and Emperor Decius was killed in battle, the first Roman Emperor to die in battle against a foreign enemy.

The constant warfare, the burden of a massive and ever-increasing army, and the devaluation of Roman currency led to rampant inflation. Heavy and arbitrary taxation, often exacted through brutal methods, alienated the population and led to widespread poverty and diminishing agricultural productivity.

Other parts of the empire, seizing upon the weakness of Rome, broke away to form their own

EMPEROR DIOCLETIAN DIVIDES THE UNMANAGEABLE EMPIRE 286 AD.

Emperor Diocletian (reigned 284-305 AD), architect of the Roman Tetrarchy, who sought to stabilize the vast empire through shared leadership. His decision to split the Empire would ultimately lead to the creation of the Western and Eastern Roman Empires.

short-lived "empires." These included a "Gallic Empire" (260–274 AD), which included the Roman provinces of Gaul, Britannia, and, for a time, Hispania; and a Palmyrene Empire (267–273 AD), centered in the city of Palmyra in present-day Syria, which declared its independence.

Diocletian Divides the Empire 286 AD

Finally, in an attempt to ease the management of the diverse elements of the empire, Emperor Diocletian (reigned 284–305 AD) divided the Roman Empire into four major parts, in an arrangement known as the "Tetrarchy" or "rule of four."

Diocletian then elevated a former ally and army colleague, Marcus Aurelius Valerius Maximian (250–310 AD), to the rank of *Augustus* and gave him control of the Western Empire, while he continued to rule the East.

Under them, a series of sub-rulers had control of other portions. The Tetrarchy worked effectively during Diocletian's reign but broke down soon after his abdication, leading to renewed civil war.

Price Control Laws Introduced

The Roman economy was in a state of collapse when Diocletian came to power, with rampant inflation and a debased currency. To combat this, Diocletian issued his famous Edict on Maximum Prices in 301 AD, which set wage and price controls on a wide range of goods and services in an attempt to curb inflation. This edict ultimately proved unenforceable and was largely a failure.

Diocletian Attempts to Stamp out Christianity

Diocletian is also famous for launching what would be the last, and most severe, persecution of Christians in the Roman Empire. While earlier Roman emperors, from the time of Nero onward, had all attempted to prevent Christianity from taking hold in Rome, the increasing racial diversity of that city—with its large Middle Eastern origin population—had made this increasingly difficult.

Diocletian's attempts, launched in 303 AD, included a series of edicts that ordered the destruction of Christian churches, the burning of Christian books, and the execution of Christians who refused to perform sacrifices to the Roman gods. While the severity of the persecution varied from place to place, it was particularly intense in the Eastern parts of the empire under the direct control of Diocletian.

The "Principate" is Replaced by the "Dominate"

The Crisis of the Third Century marked the end of the Principate (the system of government established by Augustus) and the beginning of the Dominate, a more openly autocratic form of government, more suited to managing the increasing diversity and resultant chaos of the empire. Although the Roman Empire that emerged from the crisis was a significantly different institution, more centralized, more bureaucratic, and more militaristic, it ultimately was unable to prevent the final collapse of Rome, which occurred only two hundred years later.

The Dominate period is thus marked by the transformation of the Roman Empire from its classical form, retaining the facade of a republic, to a more openly and bureaucratically organized monarchy. The concentration of power in the hands of the emperor also directly contributed to the Christianization of the Empire, only a few decades after Diocletian, and set the stage for the Medieval period in Europe and the continuation of the Roman, or Byzantine, Empire in the East.

The Wars of the Tetrarchy

Upon the abdication of Diocletian—a first in Roman history—the system he had built up collapsed into anarchy. A full-scale civil war erupted, known as the "Wars of the Tetrarchy," between the various emperors and their usurpers. The conflict had its origins in disputes over the appointment of the leaders of the subregions, known as *Caesars.*

Several claimants to the various thrones—all supported by armies loyal to themselves—emerged, with the main contenders being Constantine (declared emperor by his army in Britain); Maxentius, the son of Maximian, proclaimed emperor in Rome by the Praetorian Guard; and Galerius, one of Diocletian's main subordinates, in the East. Galerius died in 311, and was replaced by another prominent army general, Valerius Licinius.

Battle of the Milvian Bridge, 312 AD

In 312 AD, Constantine marched into Italy and faced Maxentius at the Battle of the Milvian Bridge, just outside Rome. Maxentius was defeated and died during the battle, supposedly drowning in the Tiber River during a retreat. Constantine was now master of the West.

The Battle of the Milvian Bridge also acquired near divine status in the history of Christianity, as it was claimed that Constantine experienced a vision before the battle, which he interpreted as a sign from the Christian God that if he fought the battle under the Christian sign, the Chi-Rho,[6] he would be victorious. It is then claimed that he ordered his troops to mark their shields with the Chi-Rho, and after the battle, he credited his victory to the Christian God.[7]

Constantine and Licinius Divide the Empire

The only two remaining serious contestants, Licinius in the East and Constantine in the West, were actually in-laws, and this fact contributed to them entering into a pact to divide the Roman world between themselves. The Tetrarchy was now formally abolished and replaced by a system of two emperors, called Augusti: Licinius became Augustus of the East, while Constantine became Augustus of the West. Together, the two Augusti authored the AD 313 Edict of Milan which granted official toleration to Christians in the Roman Empire.[8]

The truce did not last long. Within two years, the two emperors went to war with each other twice, with Constantine winning both times. Another ten-year truce followed, but it was again broken after Licinius claimed Constantine had twice broken their agreement, first by sending troops across the official Danube River border (albeit in pursuit of raiding Sarmatians), and again when pursuing Goths[9] who had raided the Roman province of Thrace.

CONSTANTINE I: FIRST CHRISTIAN EMPEROR

Constantine the Great (reigned 306-337 AD), the first Roman Emperor to convert to Christianity, renowned for the Edict of Milan which granted tolerance for the new faith from Judea, and for founding the city of Constantinople as a new capital for the Eastern Roman Empire.

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[6] The Chi Rho (☧) is formed by superimposing the first two (capital) letters—chi and rho (XP)—of the Greek word ΧΡΙΣΤΟΣ (Christos) onto one another. It was the very first Christian symbol, before the introduction of the cross, and is still used to the present day.

[7] There is, of course, no proof that this claim of a "vision" is true, but the story provided an explanation for early Christians to justify Constantine's later edict of toleration legalizing Christianity in the Roman Empire.

[8] See Chapter 23.

[9] Another Germanic Indo-European tribe.

Licinius Defeated: Battle of Chrysopolis, 324 AD

Almost immediately, a new war between the two *Augusti* broke out. In two sea and land battles, Constantine's forces defeated those of Licinius, forcing the latter to retreat to Bithynia in Asia Minor (the present-day north coast of Turkey).

There, at the Battle of Chrysopolis, Constantine finally defeated Licinius. The defeated emperor was imprisoned, but after it was discovered that he was plotting with the Goths to launch a rebellion, he was executed upon the order of Constantine. As the final victor, Constantine became the sole ruler of a reunited empire.

Constantine I (306–337 AD)

One of the most significant aspects of Constantine's reign was his conversion to Christianity and the profound changes this brought to the Roman Empire. While the precise nature and timing of his conversion are debated among historians, it is traditionally said to have begun around the time of the Battle of the Milvian Bridge in AD 312. Constantine played a significant role in the early organization of the Christian Church. In AD 325, he convened the First Council of Nicaea (now the city of now İznik in Turkey), which was the first ecumenical council of Christian bishops.

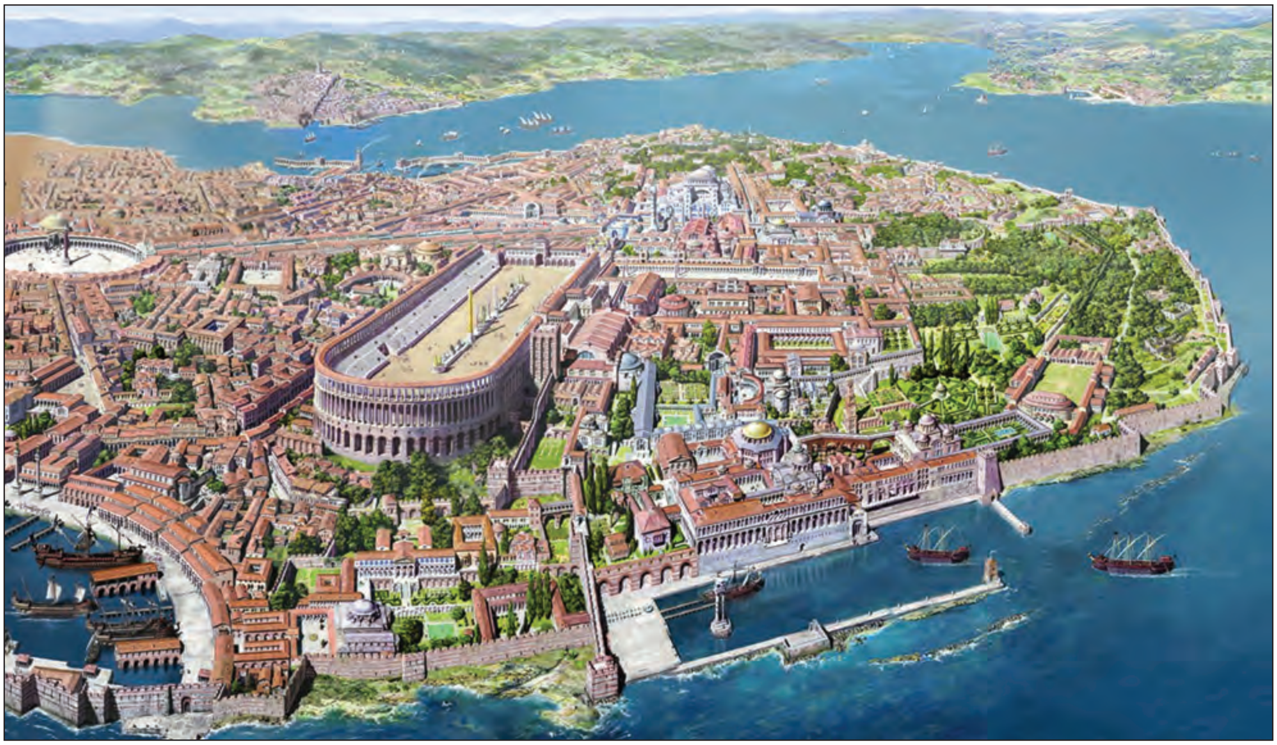
The Council addressed various issues within the Christian community but is most famous for its role in establishing the Nicene Creed, a statement of Christian faith that sought to resolve theological disputes, particularly concerning the nature of Christ.

Constantinople Founded in 330 AD

In AD 330, Constantine refounded the ancient Greek city of Byzantium, calling it *Nova Roma* ("new Rome"), intending it to be a new captial of the empire free from paganism. This city was eventually renamed Constantinople (and is in the present-day known as Istanbul).

This decision had profound long-term consequences: Constantinople would become the capital of the Byzantine Empire, the eastern continuation of the Roman Empire, and a major city for over a millennium.

"NOVA ROMA" FOUNDED BY CONSTANTINE I, 330 AD



Constantine I refounded the ancient Greek city of Byzantium, renaming it Nova Roma (New Rome). Six years were dedicated to its construction, and no expense was spared. This artist's impression provides a glimpse of the city upon completion, with the prominent Hippodrome of Constantine in the foreground. The famous Hagia Sophia church was built more than a century after Constantine.

Constantine's Economic and Political Reforms

Constantine introduced a new gold coin, the *solidus,* which would become the standard for Byzantine and European currencies for more than a millennium. This reform helped stabilize the Roman currency, which had been debased and devalued during the preceding years of crisis.

In addition, he established his own sons as *Caesars* and successors, reviving the principle of dynastic succession, which then became the norm. Upon his death in 337 AD, he was succeeded by his three sons, Constantine II, Constans, and Constantius II. These brothers were each appointed to rule different parts of the Empire.

The relationship between the brothers, however, did not survive the lure of power. Constantine II, who controlled the western provinces, was killed in 340 AD while attempting to take territory from Constans, who ruled the central provinces. This left Constans as ruler of the West until he, in turn, was overthrown and killed in 350 AD by a usurper named Magnentius.

Constantius II, who had been preoccupied with the Persians, then campaigned in the West, defeating Magnentius in 353 AD and thereby becoming the sole ruler of the entire Roman Empire.

Constantius II Becomes Sole Ruler

The reign of Constantius II (reigned from 337 to 361 AD) was characterized by almost constant warfare in the east and north, and his support for the Christian belief of Arianism, a schism which would later create great conflict within Christianity.

In the east, the renewed Persian Sassanian Empire under Shapur II greatly taxed Roman reserves, while in the north, the Germanic tribes on the Danube border posed an almost insurmountable military threat. Both Persians and Germans could, if threatened, simply withdraw deep into their rear territories, going distances which the Roman forces could never follow with any form of safety. Once the Romans had then withdrawn back to their bases, the enemy would advance and start the raids all over again.

Arianism and Christianity

One of the defining features of Constantius II's reign was his involvement in Christian theological disputes. He was a strong proponent of Arianism (a belief that Jesus, as the Son of God, was created by God the Father at a point in time, and therefore was neither co-eternal with the Father nor consubstantial), which put him at odds with the Nicene Creed, which posited the co-equal and co-eternal nature of the Father and the Son. Constantius used his power to excommunicate and exile bishops who adhered to the Nicene Creed, including the famous bishop Athanasius of Alexandria. His religious policies deepened the divide between the Eastern and Western parts of the empire, as the Western provinces were generally more aligned with Nicene Christianity.

In 361 AD, as Constantius was preparing for another war with the Sassanian Empire, he fell seriously ill. Recognizing that his death was imminent and with no sons of his own, he named his cousin Julian (who had already been serving as his *Caesar*) as his successor. Constantius II died in November of that year, with his death marking the end of the Constantinian dynasty.

JULIAN THE APOSTATE: PAGANISM'S LAST STAND AGAINST CHRISTIANITY

Julian the Apostate (reigned 361-363 AD): The last pagan emperor of Rome who championed the revival of Hellenistic traditions. (Louvre, Paris).

Julian the Apostate Attempts to Reverse Christianity

Julian (reigned 361 to 363 AD) was a son of Julius Constantius, half-brother of Constantine the Great, making Julian a relative of the ruling dy-

AFRICAN SLAVES IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE, 200 AD

The importation of hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of slaves over the period of the Roman Empire, along with the mass influx of non-Romans from all over the empire, caused the original Roman population to be totally subsumed by the mid-4th century. The disappearance of the original Roman people inevitably led to the fall of that civilization. Above: A Roman marble relief showing African slaves (with distinctive "peppercorn hair") being led with collar irons by helmeted guards. Circa 200 AD. (Ashmolean Museum, Oxford).

nasty. After Constantine's death, a number of his family members were killed (probably to eliminate potential threats to his sons' rule), but Julian and his half-brother Gallus were spared, likely due to their young age.

Julian received a Christian education, as was common at the time due to his family's role in Christianizing the Empire. However, he was secretly drawn to the pagan philosophy of the Greeks and later converted back to Hellenism. For this, he is better known as "Julian the Apostate."

In contrast to his anti-Christian predecessors, Julian did not engage in violent persecution of Christians, but he did enact policies designed to undermine the Christian church's position. For example, he ordered the restitution of property that had been confiscated from pagans and given to the Church, and revoked the privileges that Christian clergy had enjoyed.

Julian sought to organize the polytheistic Roman religion along the lines of the Christian Church, with a hierarchy of provincial priests and a supreme pontiff as a counter to the Christian bishops. He was also a philosopher and writer, and produced several works in Greek, including hymns, orations, and satires.

In 363 AD, Julian launched an ambitious campaign against the Sassanian Persian Empire. After advancing deep into Persian territory, he was forced to turn back when his supply lines were overstretched. While retreating, Julian was mortally wounded in a skirmish with Sassanian forces.

After Julian's death, the general Jovian was hastily declared his successor. Jovian was a Christian, and under him, the Roman state resumed its sponsorship of Christianity.

Curtain Falls on the Western Roman Empire

The last period of the Western Roman Empire lasted just under 120 years, a period which saw at least 19 emperors and an additional number of usurpers and would-be emperors engage in near constant conflict over ascension to the throne.

This period is also characterized by the final disappearance of the last of the original Roman stock, and the systematic and bloody persecution of the last of the pagans still remaining within the Empire's borders.

Ultimately, the completely racially diverse and consequently divided and weakened Western Roman Empire state was unable to withstand the pressure from the homogeneous Germanic hordes, who beat their way to the doors of Rome itself.[10]

Jovian Restores Christianity, 363 AD

Jovian (reigned June 363 to February 364 AD) was elected emperor by the army deep in the territory of the Sassanian Persian Empire. Julian had no clear successor, and the army hastily chose Jovian, probably because of his already high rank and the urgent need to have an emperor to negotiate with the Persians. He immediately entered into a peace treaty with Shapur II, the Sassanian king, in terms of which the Roman army was allowed to leave in exchange for large territorial concessions to the Persians in Mesopotamia.

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[10] See Chapter 20.

Jovian's next move was to reverse Julian's pagan revival. He restored the revoked privileges of the Christian clergy and reestablished the Nicene Creed as the standard for Christianity within the Roman Empire. Before he could achieve anything else, he too died unexpectedly on his way back to Constantinople, sparking another crisis of succession which eventually led to the appointment of two brothers, Valentinian I and Valens, as emperors. Valentinian I would rule the Western Roman Empire, while Valens would rule the Eastern Roman Empire.

Roman Empire Officially Divided Again

The reigns of Valentinian I and Valens are noteworthy in the context of the Roman Empire's history due to their joint rule which solidified the practice of having an Eastern and a Western Roman Emperor, essentially marking the division of the Roman Empire.

Valentinian I (reigned 364–375 AD) was chosen as the new emperor by the army in 364 AD. Recognizing the impossibility of managing the vast empire alone, he soon appointed his brother Valens as co-emperor. Valentinian ruled the Western Roman Empire, taking responsibility for the regions of Italy, Gaul, Hispania, Britain, and North Africa. He set up his court in Mediolanum (today known as Milan) and later in Trier (a city in present-day western Germany still known by that name). He was forced to defend the then already crumbling borders of the Western Empire on all fronts: the Rhine and Danube frontiers against Germanic tribes, and North Africa against raiding Moorish tribes.

Valentinian died of a burst blood vessel in 375 AD while angrily negotiating with envoys of the Quadi, a Germanic tribe, and was succeeded by his sons Gratian and Valentinian II.

Valens and the Battle of Adrianople, 376 AD

Valens (reigned 364–378 AD) took control of the Eastern Roman Empire, which included the territories of Egypt, the eastern Balkans, Asia Minor, and the Eastern Mediterranean. A follower of the Arian creed, he spent much of his time promoting that belief, but the defining event of Valens's reign was his conflict with the Goths. In 376 AD, the Goths, fleeing the Asiatic invading Huns,[11] sought refuge in the Eastern Roman Empire. Initially granted permission to settle, their mistreatment by Roman officials led to rebellion.

THEODOSIUS I MAKES CHRISTIANITY THE EMPIRE'S SOLE LEGAL RELIGION

D N THEODOSIVS P F AVG

Theodosius I (reigned 379-395 AD): The Emperor who solidified Christianity as the sole legal religion of the Roman Empire. He banned the Olympic Games in 393 AD as part of a wide range of anti-pagan measures.

In 378 AD, Valens, against the advice of his co-ruler Gratian to wait for reinforcements, engaged the Goths at the Battle of Adrianople (today known as Edirne, a Turkish city located on the European side of the Bosporus Straits, close to the Greek border). The battle was a catastrophic defeat for the Romans and resulted in the death of Valens. It was a decisive battle in the history of the Roman Empire, signaling the decline of traditional Roman infantry and the rise of the Germanic tribes.

Theodosian Dynasty (379–457 AD) Sees Final Division of Empire into East and West

Theodosius I (reigned 379 to 395 AD) was the last emperor to rule over both the Eastern and Western halves of the Roman Empire. Appointed by his predecessor's co-ruler, Gratian, Theodosius enacted significant religious changes, permanently establishing Christianity as the state religion of the Roman Empire and violently suppressing paganism.

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[11] See Chapter 21.

His first task was, however, dealing with the Gothic problem that had led to Valens' death. He adopted the classic Roman approach: integration. In 382 AD, he signed a treaty with the Gothic leaders that allowed them to live within the Roman Empire as *foederati* (allied troops), in the region of Thrace.

Christianity Declared Sole Legal Religion

Theodosius was a devout Nicene Christian, and in 380 AD, he issued the Edict of Thessalonica, also known as the *Cunctos populos*, which declared Nicene Christianity as the only legitimate faith of the Empire. In addition, he actively suppressed Arianism and ordered all major pagan sites closed and destroyed. In this way, many of the ancient Greek temples, such as those at Delphi and Olympia, were literally smashed to pieces.

Finally, he convened the "First Council of Constantinople" in 381 AD, which confirmed the Nicene faith and condemned other Christian creeds as heresies. This opened the way for "heresies" and "heretics" to be tortured and murdered, and also established the Nicene-Constantinopolitan Creed used by Eastern Orthodox and some other Christian denominations to this day.

Upon his death, Theodosius divided the empire between his two sons, with Honorius receiving the Western Roman Empire and Arcadius the Eastern Roman Empire.

This division became permanent, with the Western Roman Empire falling just 81 years later, and the Eastern Roman Empire, later known as the Byzantine Empire, lasting until 1453 when it was destroyed by the mixed-race Ottoman Turk invasion.

The Death Rattle of the Empire, 395 to 476 AD

The last eight decades of the Western Roman Empire, from 395 to 476 AD, saw no less than 23 recognized emperors, or, on average, a new emperor every 3 and a half years. This rapid turnover is the clearest indication of the significant instability that wracked the dying years of the empire.

Only two of these emperors achieved anything of significance—and even this was achieved with Germanic mercenaries. Most were locked in a struggle just to stay in office or attempting to ward off the ever-encroaching Germanics from the north.

Valentinian III (reigned 425–455 AD) is noted for the victory of his general Flavius Aetius, known significantly as the "last of the Romans," against the Asiatic invader Attila the Hun at the Battle of the Catalaunian Plains in 451 AD.

However, an indication of the decay within Rome itself came when Aetius was assassinated by Valentinian III personally in 454 AD, during a meeting in the imperial palace.

The other emperor of note during this last phase of the Western Roman Empire was Majorian (reigned 457–461 AD). He attempted to restore the Western Empire through military campaigns and significant legal and administrative reforms, making attempts to curb the by now rampant corruption within the government and military. In these efforts, he failed—because, of course, he was dealing with a by now thoroughly non-Roman population—but he stood out for at least trying to stop these malpractices. Majorian also managed to retake some territory lost to Germanic invasions in Gaul and Hispania, but his plans to retake North Africa from an invading Germanic tribe known as the Vandals were defeated.

The Fall of Rome Follows the Disappearance of the Original Roman People, 476 AD

The Germanic invasions were by now too powerful for the increasingly weak Roman forces to withstand. Rome itself, now a crumbling shadow of its former glory, populated mostly by people of Middle Eastern and mixed-race descent, could not even raise armies through buying them anymore, as the Roman treasury emptied along with the collapse of its tax-paying population.

The inevitable end came in 476 AD when the Germanic chieftain of the Scirii tribe reached the gates of Rome and deposed the last Roman Emperor, Romulus Augustulus.

There were no more Roman armies in the West left to elect new leaders, and no Romans left in Rome itself to appoint a new emperor. The Western Roman Empire was at an end, the Roman people extinguished from the pages of history, completely replaced by other peoples and races from all over the known world.

Chapter 16: Power and Purpose—The Glory of Rome

The fact that the Roman Empire dissolved into a multiracial polyglot does not detract from the very many fine cultural and engineering achievements of the original Romans.

It is, however, very noticeable that the greatest Roman achievements date from before the time of the racial dissolution of the empire, that is, Republican Rome and the early Empire. There are few buildings of note from the late Empire, and today, with only one major exception—all are in ruins.

The Roman Forum

The Roman Forum, or *Forum Romanum* in Latin, was the heart of ancient Rome. It served as the focal point for the city's political, commercial, judicial, and religious activities. The Forum evolved organically over many centuries, beginning as a marshy burial ground in the 8th century BC. It was drained in the 7th century BC by the construction of the *Cloaca Maxima*, a large sewer system. Over time, the area became the city's main public space.

It was not until the late 5th and 6th centuries AD, when no emperors had resided in Rome for a long time and the primary building effort in the city was directed towards constructing new Christian basilicas, that the Forum gradually ceased to be preserved.

It subsequently deteriorated and became buried due to sediment and debris, with much of its stone repurposed for building Christian constructions. By the Middle Ages, the Forum was used as pasture land and became known as *Campo Vaccino,* which means "Cow Field." The Renaissance sparked a re-

ROME 100 AD—THE GREATEST CITY OF ANCIENT TIMES

Rivaling any contemporary city in scale and intricacy, this model of some of the main buildings of the Roman Forum illustrates precisely how developed the city was. Equipped with running water, organized streets, apartment blocks, and vast educational and entertainment venues, the citizens wanted for nothing.

ECHOES OF GREATNESS: THE RUINS OF THE ROMAN FORUM TODAY

The ruins of the Roman Forum as they can be seen today. The Via Sacra runs down the center. Inset: The Forum in its heyday, from the Plastico di Roma Imperiale, *Italo Gismondi. (Museum of the Roman Civilization, Rome.).*

newed interest in ancient Rome, leading to the first excavations. The systematic archaeological exploration of the Forum began in the 19th century and continues today.

Major surviving buildings in the Forum include:

The Rostra: The Rostra was the platform from which orators addressed the people of Rome. It was named after a display of the prows, known as "rostra," of enemy ships in the Forum, showcased as a victory display on a raised platform. This site became the primary venue for orations to the Roman people. Originally designed by Julius Caesar, the rostra witnessed many renowned orations, including Mark Antony's famous funeral speech for Caesar. The rostra, from which the English word "rostrum" is derived, was completed in 42 BC and modified by Emperor Diocletian, who added five columns to its rear.

Curia Julia: The *Curia Iulia,* visible in the Forum today, is the third Senate building erected on that location. It dates from 44 BC when Julius Caesar ordered its construction. While it was under reconstruction, Caesar was assassinated at Pompey's Circus. The building was completed in 29 BC.

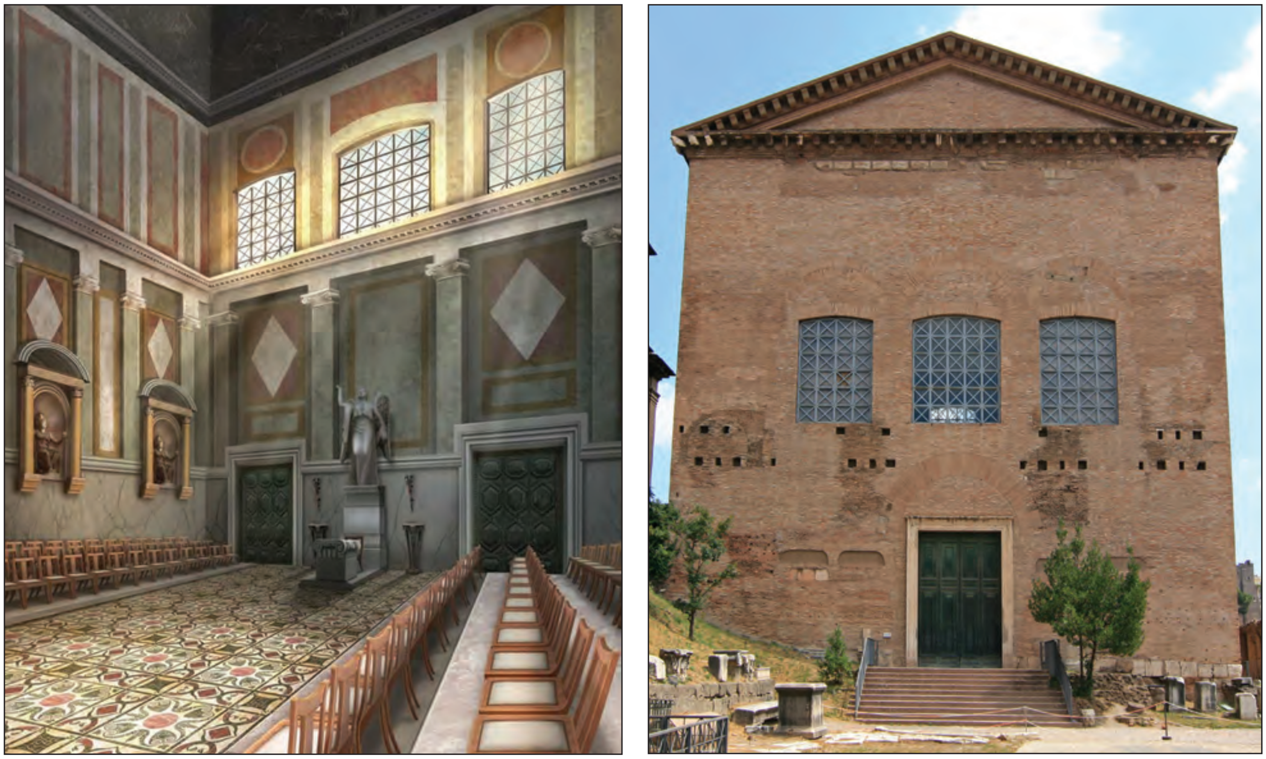
Arch of Septimius Severus: The Arch of Septimius Severus was constructed to commemorate the victory by Emperor Septimius Severus and his two sons, Caracalla and Geta, over the Parthians in a series of campaigns from 194 to 199 AD.

Arch of Titus: The Arch of Titus was erected in 81 AD by Emperor Domitian to honor the victories over the Jewish rebellion by his older brother, Titus, and their father, Vespasian, both of whom were emperors. The arch is renowned for its relief depicting the Roman victory procession in Rome, carrying artifacts taken from Herod's temple in Jerusalem.

Temple of Saturn: The *Templum Saturni* is one of the oldest Roman temples in the Forum and is traditionally dated to 497 BC. It was also the location where the treasury of the Roman Republic was stored. The building underwent several reconstructions over the centuries. The ruins today bear an inscription indicating it was "consumed by fire," presumably in the 4th century AD.

Temple of Vesta: The Temple of Vesta served as the dwelling place for the Vestal Virgins, six priestesses chosen from noble families, dedicated to the

SENATE BUILDING IN THE ROMAN FORUM, ORDERED BUILT BUY CAESAR



Above right: The building that housed the Roman Senate stands remarkably well-preserved in the center of Rome amidst the ruins of the Roman Forum. Known as the Curia Iulia*, this structure was completed in 29 BC on the site of the original senate building. Its survival is attributed to its conversion into a Christian Church, which spared it from the widespread destruction of ancient monuments following Rome's conversion to Christianity. Above left: A reconstruction of the Senate's interior.*

service of Vesta, the goddess of the hearth, home, and family. Their primary duty was to maintain the sacred fire within the temple. This fire symbolized the city's eternal life; if it was extinguished, it was believed to foretell disaster for Rome. The original temple is thought to have been established during the reign of Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome, but the ruins visible today likely date back to the Late Republic.

House of the Vestal Virgins: The *Atrium Vestae* was the residence of the Vestal Virgins. The remnants of the portico, the garden, and the statue bases stand as testimony to the interplay of religion, duty, and daily life in ancient Rome's heart.

Basilica Aemilia: The *Basilica Aemilia et Fulvia* was a prominent public building in the Roman Forum. It primarily served as a place for business and legal proceedings and was a testament to the architectural grandeur of the Roman Republic. The original structure was commissioned by consuls Aemilius Lepidus and Fulvius Nobilior in 179 BC, hence it was named *Basilica Aemilia et Fulvia*. Over the centuries, its name evolved to *Basilica Aemilia*. The structure was approximately 100 meters long and 30 meters wide. It boasted a double row of columns made from Phrygian purple marble, a rare and costly material, enhancing the basilica's splendor. Its facade faced the Roman Forum, and behind the columns were shops, which significantly contributed to the city's revenue.

Basilica Julia: The Basilica Julia, commissioned by Julius Caesar in 54 BC and financed with the Gallic Wars' spoils, played a central role in the judicial, economic, and social facets of ancient Roman life. Completed in 12 BC, it was a magnificent, elongated structure with a double aisle of columns on each side of its central nave. The building's design incorporated a spacious interior, divided into various sections using decorative screens and low barriers.

Via Sacra: The *Via Sacra*, meaning "Sacred Way," was the primary street of ancient Rome, traversing the Roman Forum. Originating from the earliest days of Rome, this street witnessed the most significant processions, encompassing victory parades, religious ceremonies, and other monumental events, in addition to accommodating the daily activities of the common Romans.

Temple of Castor and Pollux: The Temple of Castor and Pollux, also termed the Temple of the Dioscuri, stands as one of the oldest and most emblematic temples in the Forum. Castor and Pollux, referred to in Latin as the Dioscuri, were twin brothers; however, while Castor was mortal, Pollux was divine. Often linked with horses, they were revered as patrons of horsemanship and warriors. These twins held various roles in Greek and Roman legends, frequently assisting those in peril.

The genesis of the temple relates to a mythological account: after the Battle of Lake Regillus in 496 BC, two radiant young horsemen were observed watering their horses at the Spring of Juturna in the Roman Forum. After announcing the Roman triumph over the Latins, they disappeared. These enigmatic figures were identified as Castor and Pollux. To express gratitude for their celestial aid, the Roman *dictator* Postumius pledged to construct a temple in their memory. Although the temple was reconstructed multiple times, the present ruins are believed to originate from 14 AD.

Temple of Caesar: The Temple of *Divus Iulius*, or the Temple of the Deified Julius, holds a distinct position in the Roman Forum due to its historical and emblematic resonance. Dedicated to Julius Caesar, the inaugural Roman to receive official deification, this temple marked a pivotal shift in Roman culture and faith, laying the groundwork for the divinization of subsequent emperors.

Mamertine Prison: Contrary to the grandeur of other edifices in the Forum, this ancient jail is attributed with profound historical and, for numerous Christians, spiritual importance because of the personalities believed to be incarcerated there. Among the individuals purported to have been detained within its subterranean cells are Vercingetorix, chief of the Arverni tribe and a paramount figure opposing Julius Caesar, and Saul of Tarsus, more widely recognized as Paul, the establisher of the Christian Catholic Church in Rome. Presently, the church of San Giuseppe dei Falegnami is erected atop the Mamertine's remnants.

Umbilicus Urbis: Interpreted as the "Navel of the City," this monument was a symbolic representation of Rome's center and, allegorically, the

THE ARCH OF TITUS, 82 AD

SENATVS
POPVLVSQVE ROMANVS
DIVO TITO DIVI VESPASIANI F
VESPASIANO AVGVSTO

The Arch of Titus in the Roman Forum, built to commemorate the Roman victory in Judea. The Roman victory had profound consequences: the Jews were dispersed throughout the Roman Empire, marking the beginning of the Jewish Diaspora.

THE TEMPLE OF VESTA CIRCA 100 BC

The Temple of Vesta dates from the earliest period of Roman history. This is where the vestal virgins cared for the famed Eternal Flame of Rome. Originally surrounded by 20 Corinthian columns, the present-day ruins probably date from the late Republic.

epicenter of the world. Based on the remaining evidence, the structure appears to have been cylindrical, although much of its original design is missing.

Milliarium Aureum: Commissioned by Augustus in 20 BC, the "Golden Milestone" served as the reference from which all distances in the Empire were gauged. Initially believed to have been crafted from gilded bronze, only a stone foundation persists today. Inscriptions listing road names and the respective distances to various cities are believed to have adorned it.

The City Walls

The Servian Wall, named after the sixth Roman king Servius Tullius who is traditionally associated with its construction, is the oldest surviving Roman city wall, dating from at least the 4th century BC. Most likely built after the sack of Rome by the Gauls in 390 BC, the wall, in its most extensive form, spanned approximately 7 miles (11 kilometers) and enclosed an area of about 608 acres. It varied in height and thickness, but it generally measured around 12 feet (3.6 meters) in height and 12 feet (3.6 meters) in thickness. Several gates were built into the wall, some of which have survived to the present day, along with portions of the original wall.

The growth of Rome necessitated a continual expansion of the city walls, the most significant of which was the Aurelian Walls, built between 271 and 275 AD. This wall enclosed all the seven hills of Rome and extended for 12 miles (19 kilometers) in total. They were constructed of brick-faced concrete, 11 feet (3.5 meters) thick and 26 feet (8 meters) high, with a square tower every 100 Roman feet (97 feet or 29.6 meters).

The Circus Maximus

The Circus Maximus was a vast Roman chariot racing stadium and mass entertainment venue. Located between the Aventine and Palatine Hills, its elongated oval shape and considerable size made it the first and largest stadium in ancient Rome and, by most accounts, the most significant in the entire Roman Empire. The origins of the Circus Maximus date back to the regal period, around the 6th century BC, when it was likely an open field used for public events. At its maximum development during the Roman Empire, the Circus could accommodate, according to some estimates, up to 300,000 spectators, making it the largest sporting arena ever constructed.

AUERELIAN WALLS OF ROME, 275 AD

The last walls and greatest of the city of Rome were completed in 275 AD. They were meant to defend the city, but with the Roman people gone, the walls alone were unable to prevent the metropolis's fall.

Over the centuries, the Circus underwent multiple renovations and enhancements, notably under the reigns of Caesar, Augustus, and subsequent emperors. For example, Julius Caesar expanded its seating areas, and Emperor Trajan later renovated it after a fire.

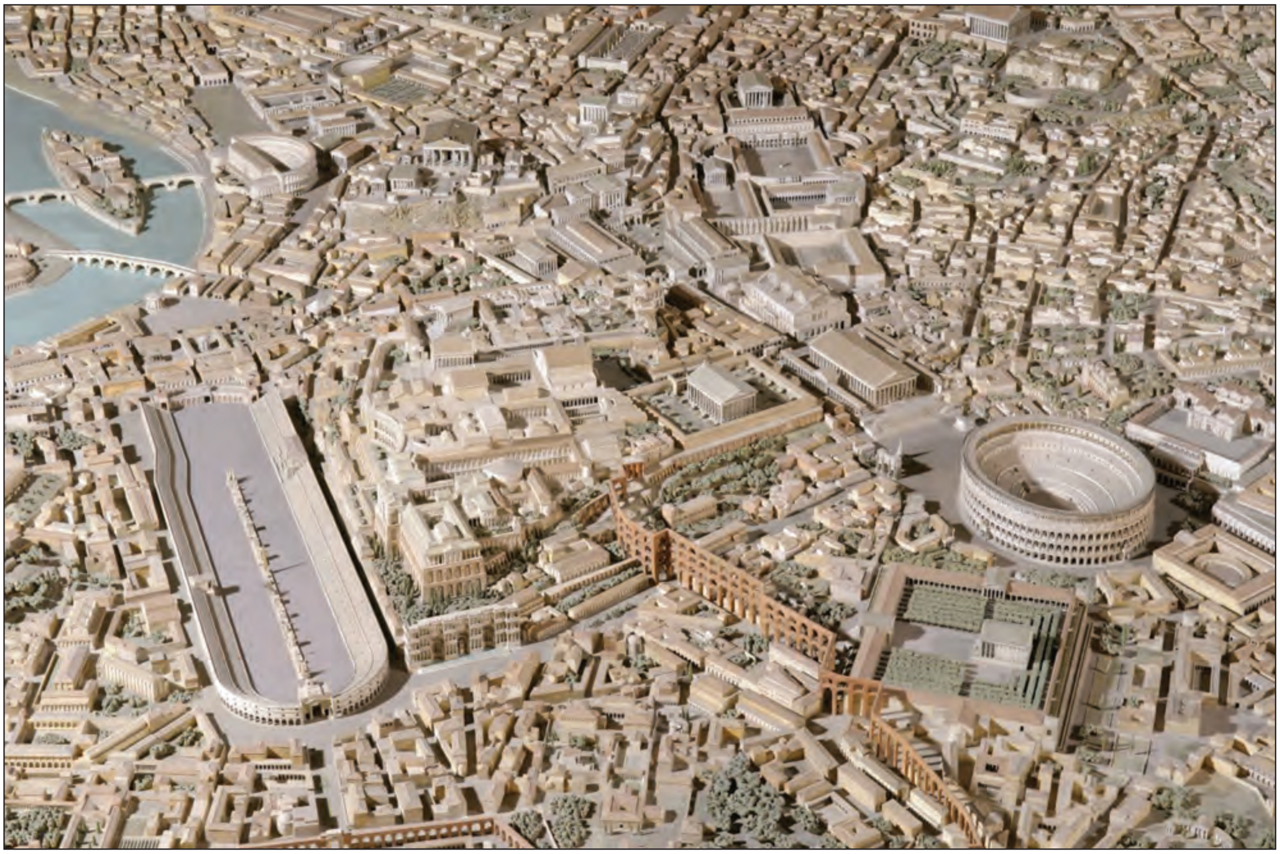
The Circus Maximus was primarily used for chariot races, among the most beloved spectacles in ancient Rome. These races were intensely competitive and frequently dangerous for both charioteers and horses. In addition to chariot racing, the Circus also hosted events such as religious ceremonies, public feasts, athletics, plays, and, occasionally, gladiatorial combats.

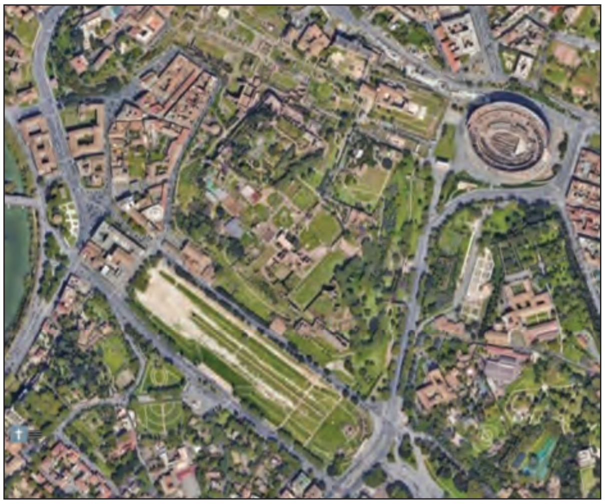
At the Circus's center was a raised median known as the *spina,* adorned with various statues and obelisks. Chariots raced around this *spina.* At one end of the Circus stood the *carceres,* the starting gates, from which chariots would begin their races.

Spectators sat in tiered seating sections called the *cavea*. The prime seats were reserved for wealthier and more influential citizens, while ordinary people sat in the higher tiers.

After the fall of the Western Roman Empire, the Circus Maximus's use for entertainment waned. Over subsequent centuries, it faced fires, natural disasters, and neglect. By the medieval era, much of its stonework was repurposed for other building projects in Rome, especially Christian church constructions. Nevertheless, the Circus Maximus's outline remains visible, offering a tangible remind-

CIRCUS MAXIMUS—LARGEST STADIUM COMPLEX IN HISTORY





Above: The vast Circus Maximus (left hand side of the model) in Rome stands as the most significant Roman entertainment complex ever constructed, boasting the capacity to accommodate 300,000 spectators. Construction was started around 600 BC, and it grew considerably in subsequent centuries. Though much larger than the Colosseum, the Circus Maximus did not stand the test of time. It was eventually dismantled, with much of its stone repurposed to construct several Christian churches in Rome. Left: While the stones of the Circus Maximus have long been removed, the stadium's footprint remains discernible in satellite images. Its immense scale becomes particularly evident when juxtaposed with the size of the Colosseum, also visible in this image.

er of the scale and splendor of ancient Roman entertainment.

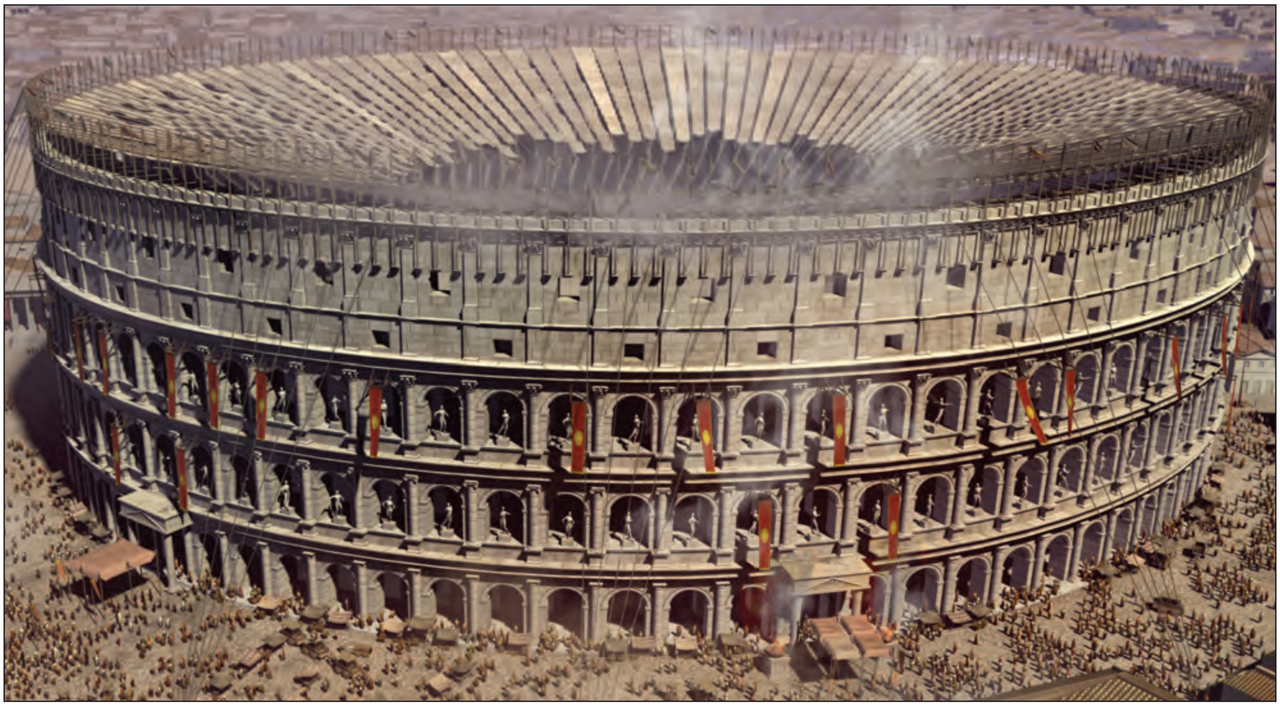
The Colosseum

The Colosseum stands as one of the most emblematic edifices not just in Rome but across the globe, epitomizing the majesty and longevity of the Roman Empire.

Its original Latin designation is the *Amphitheatrum Flavium*, or Flavian Amphitheatre, in honor of the Flavian dynasty of emperors responsible for its construction.

Work commenced under Emperor Vespasian in AD 72 and concluded in AD 80 by his successor, Titus. Further alterations occurred during Domitian's reign (81–96 AD). At its full capacity, it accommodated up to 80,000 spectators. Predominantly constructed from concrete and sand, it spans approximately 615 feet (189 meters) in length, 510

FLAVIAN AMPHITHEATER—ROME'S MOST CELEBRATED STRUCTURE



Without question, now one of the most popular and iconic representations of Roman civilization, the "Colosseum," more aptly termed the Flavian Amphitheater, was built between 72–80 AD. This remarkable theater included a canvas canopy that could extend over the entire facility, shielding spectators from precipitation or intense sunlight. The moniker "Colosseum" derives from a monumental statue of Emperor Nero situated adjacent to the edifice.

feet (156 meters) in width, covers a base area of 6 acres (24,000 square meters), and rises to a height of over 157 feet (48 meters). It comprises four levels; the initial three feature arches adorned with columns of varied designs (Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian), whereas the fourth level showcases small rectangular windows. Furthermore, it possesses 80 entryways, strategically placed to ensure efficient crowd movement.

The Colosseum hosted renowned gladiatorial bouts, often doubling as a means of execution or chastisement, wild beast pursuits, and occasionally, simulated terrestrial and naval confrontations.

The Pantheon

The Pantheon in Rome stands as one of the best-preserved ancient Roman buildings, showcasing the excellence and longevity of Roman architecture. As the sole piece of Imperial architecture that remains nearly intact, it offers an unparalleled glimpse into ancient Roman technology.

Originally constructed between 27 and 25 BC under the Roman statesman Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa, the Pantheon was rebuilt by Emperor Hadrian around 120 AD after a fire damaged the initial structure. The Pantheon was originally conceived as a temple dedicated to all Roman gods, which is reflected in its name "Pantheon," meaning "all gods."

The most prominent feature of the Pantheon is its vast dome. With a diameter of 142 feet (43.3 meters), it holds the distinction of being the world's largest unreinforced concrete dome. As the dome ascends to its central oculus, its thickness diminishes. This oculus, measuring 30 feet (9 meters) in diameter, is open to the sky, and together with the entrance door, serves as the sole source of light for the interior.

The Pantheon's preservation is attributed to its conversion into a Christian Church in 609 AD. This transformation shielded it from complete demolition and repurposing for church construction, a fate many Roman buildings suffered.

Nonetheless, in the 17th century, certain elements of the Pantheon, particularly its doors, were divested of their original gilded bronze veneer, which was subsequently melted to fabricate the

ROME'S PANTHEON: LARGEST CONCRETE DOME EVER BUILT 120 AD

Rome's Pantheon, as rebuilt by the emperor Hadrian in 120 AD. The massive structure is still the world's largest reinforced concrete dome. The interior, left, contains an occulus in its center, which relieves the pressure on the rook and provides the sole source of internal light. Each year on April 21st, traditionally considered the foundation date of Rome, sunlight strikes the doorway at precisely midday, a deliberate structural design element.

baldachin, a grand bronze canopy situated within St. Peter's Basilica.

Rome's Aqueducts: Benchmark for the Empire

The ancient aqueducts of Rome represent one of the most remarkable feats of Roman engineering and were instrumental in underpinning the everyday operations and sophistication of ancient Rome. Designed to channel water from remote sources into the city, remnants of these structures persist today, both within Rome and throughout regions of the erstwhile Roman Empire.

The Romans, over their history, erected eleven major aqueducts to cater to Rome. These stretched over 250 miles (400 kilometers), though not all were operational concurrently.

Roman engineers meticulously determined the gradient of the aqueducts, ensuring a consistent and moderate flow of water. This water coursed through covered channels, usually arched and constructed of stone, brick, or concrete. While sections of the aqueduct were subterranean, others were raised on arches, particularly when traversing valleys.

Settling tanks were strategically placed along the aqueducts, facilitating sediment deposition and preserving the water's clarity.

Upon arriving in the city, this water was stored in expansive reservoirs known as castella before being channeled via lead pipes to public fountains, baths, and occasionally private residences.

The first Roman aqueduct was the Aqua Appia, constructed in 312 BC by the censor Appius Claudius Caecus. In total, it spanned over 10 miles (16 kilometers). Other important aqueducts include:

- The Aqua Marcia (completed 140 BC) which spanned 57 miles (91 kilometers), and was the first to be built using stone and masonry, enhancing its durability. It remained functional for centuries and was still in operation at the fall of Rome.
- The Aqua Virgo, commissioned by the Roman general and consul Agrippa, the son-in-law of Augustus, was built in 19 BC. Remarkably, it remains operational today, supplying water to the famous Trevi Fountains in Rome.
- The Aqua Claudia, commissioned by Emperor Caligula in 38 AD, was completed in 52 AD during

the reign of Emperor Claudius, after whom it is named. This aqueduct, with remains still visible today, stands as one of Rome's most impressive, spanning about 43 miles (69 kilometers) from its source to the city. It delivered over 85,000 cubic meters of water daily to the city.

Today, remnants of Roman aqueducts are visible throughout Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East, bearing witness to the technological prowess Rome spread throughout its empire.

Architecture—The Invention of Concrete

The Romans adopted numerous building designs from the Greeks, including various column types and the renowned Greco-Roman architectural style characterized by a triangular roof supported by columns. The Romans refined these designs, producing structures that remain impressive and unparalleled in sheer aesthetics even today.

Many Roman buildings hail from the empire's zenith. Some structures, such as the renowned water aqueduct in Segovia, Spain, function today, nearly nineteen centuries post-construction.

Roman roads served as the primary transportation routes of their era. The road system introduced by the Romans remained unmatched until the twentieth century.

The craftsmanship exhibited in many constructions of that period would challenge even contemporary standards, despite our modern tools. The Romans pioneered town planning, designing new cities on grid patterns to simplify commuting.

Their introduction of concrete and the vaulted dome enabled the construction of the vast buildings that would later be recognized as cathedrals. However, this construction boom had consequences. Slaves provided the labor required for these monumental projects.

The influx of slaves, combined with natural migration to the Roman core, resulted in the demographic shift that precipitated the empire's decline.

Roman Religion—a Mixture of Beliefs

The distinguishing feature of Roman religion, before the advent of Christianity, was its absence of a single faith or belief. The religious sphere of Rome mirrored the empire itself, blending various cults and beliefs from Greece, Egypt, and the Middle East. Many of the earliest Roman gods symbolized the pragmatic necessities of daily life and represented military prowess.

Roman Gods' Names Still in Use Today

Janus and Vesta were protectors of the door and hearth; Lares defended the field and household; Pales presided over pastures, Saturn the sowing, Ceres the grain's growth, Pomona the fruit, and Consus and Ops the harvest. Jupiter, king of the gods, not only brought rain but also wielded lightning as his weapon, much like the Greek chief god, Zeus. He protected the Romans during their military activities beyond their community's borders.

Mars, the god of young men and warfare, alongside Jupiter, Quirinus, Janus, and Vesta, made up the primary Roman pantheon.

As part of their policy of absorption, the Romans often gave foreign gods from conquered territories the same reverence as their own deities. Formal invitations were commonly sent to the religious leaders of these regions to reside in Rome. There, they had the privilege to build temples for their gods and bring any sacred artifacts associated with their beliefs.

AQUA CLAUDIA, CARRYING WATER TO ROME SINCE 58 AD

The longest surviving single stretch of the Aqua Claudia, which carried water to Rome from 58 AD until the fall of Rome in 476 AD. (Parco degli Acquedotti, southeast Rome.)

SEGOVIA, SPAIN: SPECTACULAR AND ENDURING ROMAN ENGINEERING

The Roman aqueduct in Segovia, Spain, stands as one of the most well-preserved and astounding engineering feats of the Roman Empire. Constructed around the 1st century AD, it soars to a height of 93.5 feet (28.5 meters). Remarkably, no mortar was used in its assembly. The granite blocks were meticulously cut and expertly balanced, enabling the aqueduct's continuous operation in delivering water to the city until the 19th century.

This growth in the number of foreign religions had another serious consequence—foreigners were attracted to the city in ever-increasing numbers. Gods from neighboring Italian tribes that became part of the Roman pantheon included Diana, Minerva, Hercules, and Venus.

Roman society believed in individual religious freedom, allowing each person to practice their own religion as long as it maintained public order. The growing number of temples in Rome showcased the Romans' willingness to let various cults thrive under their rule. This growth in the number of foreign religions had another serious consequence—foreigners were attracted to the city in ever-increasing numbers.

With the vast territories under Roman control, a myriad of religious practices and beliefs poured into Rome from all parts of the known world: Mithraism from Iran, Judaism from Palestine, and the Isis cult from Egypt became popular, especially after Cleopatra VII's year-long visit to Rome as Caesar's guest. These diverse influences all vied for followers in Rome.

Roman Festivals

The oldest Roman festivals endured until the close of the pagan Roman era, commemorating the original Indo-European celebrations of spring and winter. The Saturnalia, a significant festival, was celebrated from December 17 to 23, aligning with the original winter solstice. During this time, all business activities ceased, slaves were temporarily freed, and gifts were exchanged.

Lupercalia, honoring Lupercus, the pastoral god, was celebrated on February 15 at the Lupercal cave on the Palatine Hill, believed to be where Rome's founders, Romulus and Remus, were nurtured by a she-wolf.

The Equiria, a festival dedicated to Mars, was held on February 27 and March 14, marking the time when new military campaigns were planned.

By AD 392, after Christianity had become dominant, all non-Christian religions were banned by an edict from Emperor Theodosius.

Roman Literature

Culturally, the early Romans left a significant heritage, contributing to Western civilization some of the most renowned writers and thinkers outside of classical Greece. All educated Romans were bilingual, speaking both Latin and Greek.

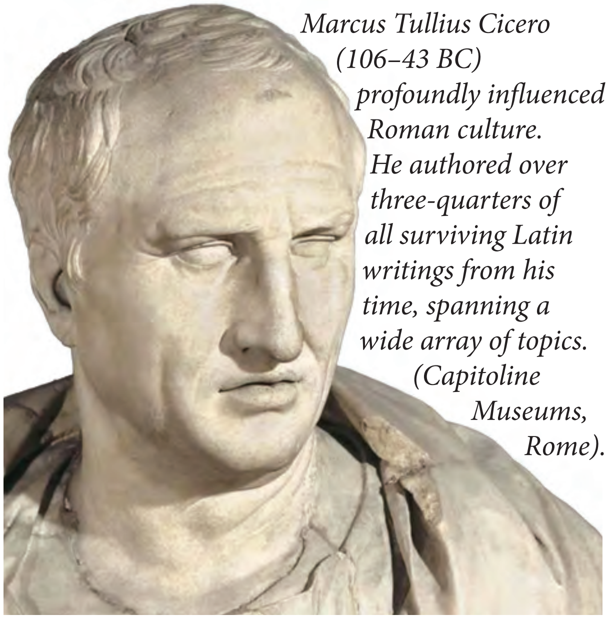
- Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 BC) was one of the most notable Latin writers, producing texts on a broad range of topics, including analyses and discussions of Greek thought, particularly that of Plato and the Stoics.
- Virgil (70–19 BC) was the most distinguished of all Roman poets, primarily due to his epic poem,

the Aeneid, which narrated the story of Aeneas, who journeyed from Troy to Italy and played a role in establishing the Latin people.

- Ovid (43 BC–17 AD) is best known for his poem Metamorphoses, which encompasses stories from classical mythology. He also earned fame as a poet of pleasure and love. After a scandalous incident involving a member of the imperial family, he was exiled to an outpost on the Black Sea.
- Livy (59–17 BC) penned a vast history of Rome, marking the first history of its kind.
- Tacitus (55–117 AD) authored several works, including Germania and The Annals, both of which were critiques of Roman society and the imperial system of governance.
- Plutarch (46–120 AD) is celebrated for his biographical work, Parallel Lives, which profiles forty-six renowned Romans and Greeks. This compilation served as the inspiration for the English playwright William Shakespeare ("Antony and Cleopatra" and "Julius Caesar.")
- Historian Pliny the Elder (23–79 AD) compiled what can be considered the first encyclopedia, the *Natural History.*

In Egypt, the Macedonian remnant continued the scientific research initiated under the Ptolemies. Alexandria was revitalized into a grand city. This period gave rise to the esteemed geographer Ptolemy (circa 200 AD), the first to plot a map of the world on a curved surface, building on the original Greek blueprints established by Eratosthenes.

CICERO: STATESMAN, SCHOLAR, AND WRITER



Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 BC) profoundly influenced Roman culture. He authored over three-quarters of all surviving Latin writings from his time, spanning a wide array of topics. (Capitoline Museums, Rome).

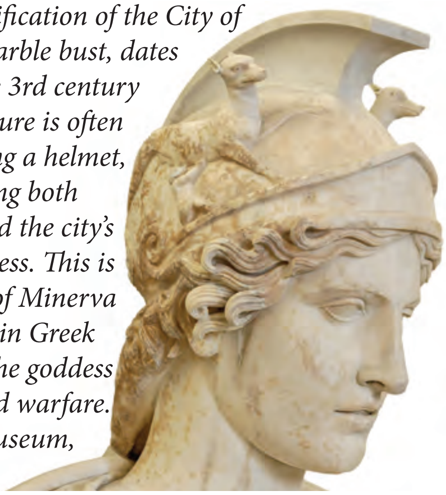
- Galen (139–200 AD), another Romanized Greek, laid down the foundations of medicine that Europe adhered to until the early Renaissance era.

Roman Art—Setting Global Standards

In many architectural facets, early Roman art emulated Grecian designs. This influence is evident in the realm of sculpture, where numerous statues of Greeks that exist today are Roman replications of Greek antecedents. Roman art established benchmarks by which all subsequent art is assessed, to the extent that an item or style is categorized as "classical" or otherwise.

This distinction signifies that, even after two millennia, Roman design remains unsurpassed in excellence.

ROMAN ART: UPHOLDING THE GREEK IDEALS

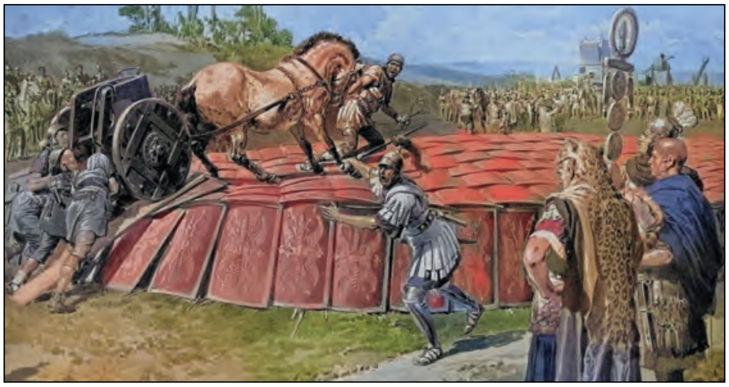


The "Personification of the City of Rome," a marble bust, dates back to the 3rd century AD. The figure is often shown wearing a helmet, symbolizing both protection and the city's martial prowess. This is reminiscent of Minerva (or Athena in Greek mythology), the goddess of wisdom and warfare. (Louvre Museum, Paris).

VIRGIL: ROME'S PREEMINENT POET

A bust believed to be an accurate 1st-century AD representation of the poet Virgil (70–19 BC) stands on his tomb in Parco della Grotta di Posillipo, Italy. Virgil's magnum opus, the "Aeneid," narrates the tale of Rome's mythical founder and emphasizes Rome's divine mandate to civilize the globe.

TESTING THE STRENGTH OF A TESTUDO



The Roman army's testudo *(tortoise), formed by soldiers locking their shields together, was used to protect legionnaires from enemy projectiles. The Roman historian Dio Cassius noted that a testudo was so strong that a horse and chariot could be driven over its roof. (*Roman History, *Book 66.24.3).*

The Roman Army: The Power Behind the Throne

No review of Roman culture would be complete without an understanding of how the Roman army operated. It was the workhorse of the Republic and the Empire. Without it, Rome itself would never have been more than just another city.

The Roman army underwent significant evolution during its history, adapting to changing circumstances, technological advancements, and diverse threats. Its development can be broadly divided into several phases:

1. Early Roman Army (500–315 BC): Initially, the Roman military was based on a socio-economic class system. The wealthiest class, the *equites,* served as cavalry, while the lesser classes comprised the infantry. The earliest military formations were heavily influenced by the Etruscans and Greeks, leading to the use of the Macedonian phalanx, a formation of hoplite soldiers.

2. Manipular Roman Army (315–107 BC): Due to challenges faced in the early wars between the Romans and other tribes on the Italian Peninsula (a series of conflicts known as the Samnite Wars), the Romans transitioned from the phalanx to the more flexible manipular system. A legion was divided into maniples, smaller units that allowed for better maneuverability on varied terrains.

Typically, a Roman legion was organized into three lines: the *hastati* (youngest and least experienced soldiers) at the front, the *principes* (in their prime) in the middle, and the *triarii* (most veteran) at the back.

3. Marian Roman Army (from 107 BC): Initiated by General Gaius Marius (circa 157–86 BC) in response to manpower shortages and to professionalize the army, the Marian reforms eliminated the property requirement for service and standardized equipment. The old manipular structure was replaced by larger cohorts, making the legion more adaptable in battle. A legion typically comprised ten cohorts. Soldiers enlisted for a fixed period, usually 25 years, after which they received retirement benefits, most often in the form of land.

4. Imperial Roman Army (30 BC–284 AD): After the Civil Wars, Augustus reorganized the army, instituting a standing force of 28 legions, supplemented by auxiliaries recruited from the non-citizen populations of the empire. Auxiliaries provided the Roman army with specialized skills, such as archery or cavalry, which were less prevalent in the legions. Recruited from foreign nations, auxiliaries often earned Roman citizenship upon completing their service. Additionally, an elite unit was established to protect the emperor, known as the Praetorian Guard. This unit would later play a pivotal role in "electing" emperors.

5. Late Roman Army (284–476 AD): In response to growing external threats and internal challenges, the army underwent restructuring under Diocletian and Constantine. It was divided into mobile field units (*comitatenses*) and frontier units (*limitanei*). Yet, the most crucial change in the army was the increasing dependence on non-Romans for military service, especially those from Germania and Germanic tribes. This shift occurred because the population of genuine Romans had dwindled, leaving insufficient numbers to fill the ranks. Moreover, the "new"" population of Rome displayed little enthusiasm for military service.

The Roman army was renowned for its discipline, rigorous training, and engineering skills. Each army was capable of building roads, forts, and even cities when required. The Roman army also excelled in siege warfare, set-piece battles, and devised various formations such as the *Testudo* (or Tortoise) for specific combat scenarios. These advanced tactics often enabled the Roman army to triumph over numerically superior, yet untrained and ill-disciplined adversaries.

Chapter 17: Bello Gallico—The Celts and Rome

The origins of the Celts are rooted in the Bronze Age Hallstatt culture of Central Europe, around the area of modern-day Austria and southern Germany, beginning in the late 2nd millennium BC. This culture, distinguished by its iron-working, expanded westward, and by around 500 BC, the La Tène culture, which is more recognizably "Celtic" in its artifacts and style, emerged.

The La Tène culture further spread Celtic influence across a broader area in western Europe. Around this time, the Celts were given the name *Galli* by the Romans. The exact origin of this word is still debated, but the most likely explanation is that it derived from the Greek word Γαλάται (*Galátai*) for the Celtic tribe in Asia Minor, known as the Galatians. Whatever the case, the Celts, or "Galli" Celts, (and hence the word "Gauls") settled in what is now known as France, parts of northern Spain, Switzerland, and a large part of northern Italy.

Transalpine Gaul: Modern-Day France

The region which the Romans called Transalpine Gaul (*Gallia Transalpina*) refers to the part of Gaul situated across the Alps from Rome's perspective, encompassing most of modern-day France. There, a large number of Celtic tribes resided, the most significant being:

The Arverni: They were one of the most powerful tribes, centered in the Auvergne region.

The Aedui: The greatest rivals to the Arverni, located in modern-day Burgundy. They were also allies of Rome.

The Parisii: The tribe that inhabited the area around modern-day Paris. They gave their name to that city.

The Belgae: This tribe lived in the north, bordering the Germanic tribes and the English Channel. They later gave their name to the state of Belgium.

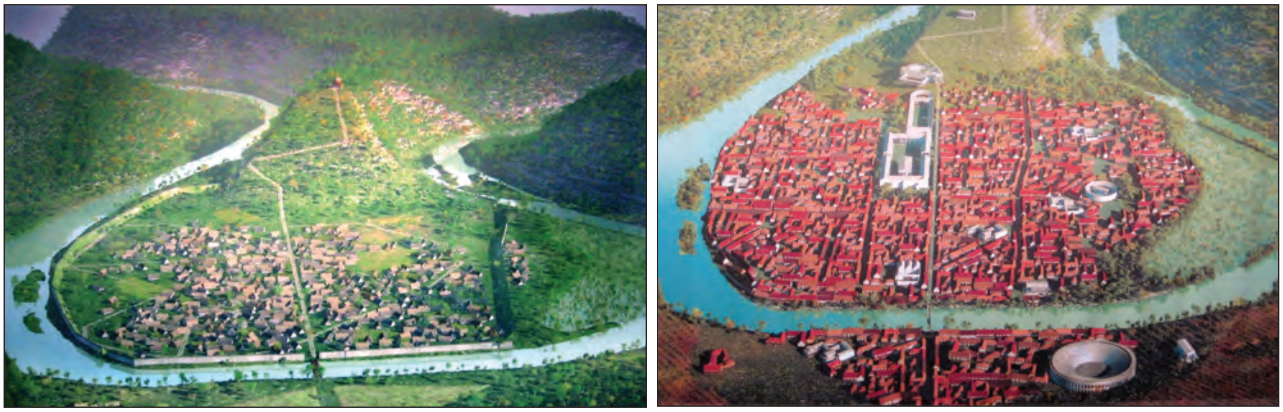
The Allobroges: This tribe lived in the southeastern parts of Transalpine Gaul, near the Alps.

While all were Celts, these tribes were prone to fight with each other as much as with anybody else, and a continually shifting landscape of alliances, periods of peace, and intertribal wars marked their existence.

Rome's initial interactions with the tribes of Transalpine Gaul were sporadic and often involved trade or minor skirmishes. However, by the 2nd century BC, Rome expanded its influence into the southern part of Gaul, founding the province they called *Gallia Narbonensis* (around modern-day Provence).

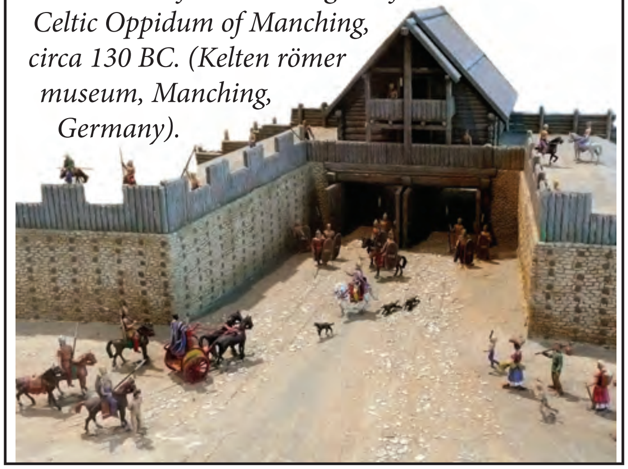
The most famous Gaul of all, Vercingetorix. This statue is located on Mont Auxois, near Alise-Sainte-Reine in the Côte-d'Or department in the Burgundy region of eastern France. Mont Auxois is the ancient site of Alesia, where the decisive Siege of Alesia took place, resulting in the capture of Vercingetorix and the Gallic defeat by the Romans. Vercingetorix is renowned for uniting the Gaulish tribes and leading them in a significant revolt against Roman forces led by Julius Caesar. The monument was commissioned by Emperor Napoleon III from the sculptor Aimé Millet and was installed in 1865.

THE GAULISH OPPIDUM OF VESONTIO, 100 BC AND 200 AD



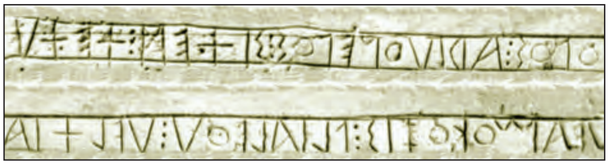
Above left: A model of the Gaulish fortified town ("oppidum") of Vesontio, circa 100 BC (located today in eastern France, in the department of Doubs in the region of Bourgogne-Franche-Comté). Hundreds, if not thousands, of these towns existed in Gaul, and the Romans estimated that the Gaulish population in what is today France stood at around 3 million at the time. Above right: A model of the Gallo-Roman settlement of Vesentio, as developed after the Roman occupation of Gaul. The Roman additions to the town's architecture are clearly visible. (Archéologie au Musée des Beaux-Arts de Besançon.)

MANCHING OPPIDUM GATE, 130 BC



A model of the eastern gate of the Celtic Oppidum of Manching, circa 130 BC. (Kelten römer museum, Manching, Germany).

LEPONTIC WRITING, 5TH CENTURY BC



One of the oldest Lepontic inscriptions, dating from circa the 5th century BC, is from Prestino in Cisalpine Gaul (today Como, Lombardy, northern Italy). This form of writing, clearly based on early Greek contact from the latter's settlements on the south coast of France many centuries earlier, has dispelled the myth that the Celts were illiterate and had no written language of their own. (Civico Museo Archeologico di Milano, Italy.)

Cisalpine Gaul: Modern-day Northern Italy

More Celts moved south and established themselves in the region known today as northern Italy, approximately between the Po River and the Apennines. The term Cisalpine means "on this side of the Alps," referring to the perspective from Rome. The major Celtic tribes in Cisalpine Gaul included:

The Boii: Perhaps the most well-known Celtic tribe in the region, they settled around the Po valley. The city of Bologna is believed to derive its name from the Boii.

The Insubres: This tribe settled in the area of modern-day Milan.

The Cenomani: This tribe occupied the region around modern-day Brescia and Verona.

The Senones: This tribe was the most aggressive of the Celts and became famous for their sack of Rome in 390 BC.

The relationship between the Celts in Cisalpine Gaul and the emerging Roman Republic to the south was complex and often adversarial. The most notable early confrontation occurred in 390 BC when the Senones, led by Brennus, sacked Rome. This event deeply traumatized the Romans and left a lasting impression.

As Rome extended its influence in the 3rd and 2nd centuries BC, they engaged in conflicts with the Celtic tribes in Cisalpine Gaul. Wars and skirmishes were common, but by the end of the 2nd century BC, most of Cisalpine Gaul had fallen under Roman rule. The Celts gradually integrated into the Roman world, though they maintained some unique cultural practices and traditions. In 49 BC, Julius Caesar granted Roman citizenship to all communities in Cisalpine Gaul, further incorporating them into the Roman state. The region subsequently became known as *Gallia Cisalpina.*

Gallic Culture Provides Insight into Iron Age

Though the Romans often referred to most non-Romans as "barbarians,"[1] this label was highly subjective. The Gauls, while not as technologically sophisticated as the Romans, were certainly not primitive savages.

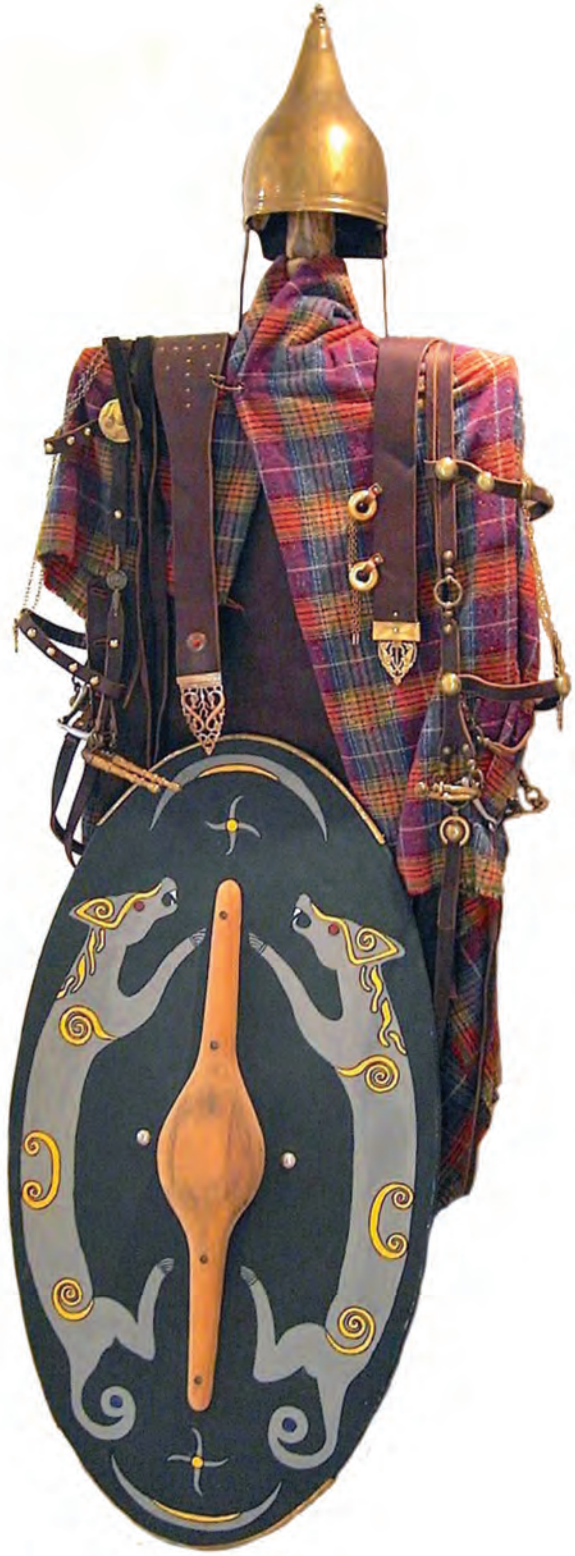
Language and Writing: The Gauls spoke now-extinct Celtic languages, part of the broader Indo-European language family. Their writing system evolved from the Greek alphabet, reflecting early (600 BC) interactions with Greek colonies in what is now southern France. Few instances of original Gallic writing have endured, but those that exist clearly demonstrate Greek influence. In Cisalpine Gaul, a language and writing system known as Lepontic was used. The oldest Lepontic inscriptions date from around 600 BC and bear resemblance to the archaic Etruscan alphabet.

Art: The La Tène culture, beginning around 450 BC, represents the artistic pinnacle of the Gauls. They crafted detailed metalwork, including jewelry such as torcs (metal neck rings), brooches, and weapons. They were also proficient in pottery, producing ornate ceramics.

Religion: The Druids, a distinct class of priests, held significant influence in Gallic society. They not only oversaw religious rites but also served as educators, philosophers, and mediators. The Gauls revered various deities, many linked to natural elements and places. Some of their gods, like Teutates, Esus, and Taranis, were later assimilated into Roman mythology following the conquest.

Society and Hierarchy: Gallic society was structured hierarchically. Chieftains and the warrior

THE CELTIC WARRIOR: ENEMY OF ROME



A typical Celtic warrior's apparel, based on finds in graves in western Europe. (Kelten-Keller Museum, Rodheim-Bieber, Germany.)

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[1] In fact the word "barbarian" came from the Greek word "βάρβαρος" (bárbaros). The term is onomatopoeic in nature, imitating the sound of babbling, and it was used by the Greeks to describe any non-Greek-speaking peoples. To Greek ears, non-Greek languages sounded like "bar-bar-bar," hence the term.

THE DYING GAUL, 230 BC

A detail from the Dying Gaul, *a Roman sculpture, circa 230 BC. An exemplary portrayal of the racial characteristics of the Gauls with whom Rome would later do battle. Initially, the Gauls fiercely resisted the invading Romans, but once subdued, they became steadfast allies. Note the classic Celtic "torc" style necklace the subject is wearing. (Capitoline Museums, Rome.)*

elite were at the apex, succeeded by traders and craftsmen, with farmers and herdsmen making up the majority of the populace. Kings or tribal leaders were selected based on lineage, but martial skill and affluence were also influential factors.

Settlements: The Gauls resided in diverse settlements, from modest farming villages to expansive fortified complexes known as *oppida* (singular: *oppidum)*. These *oppida* functioned as hubs for trade, craft, and defense. By the 2nd and 1st centuries BC, the Gauls had started minting their coins, underscoring their involvement in extensive trade networks.

Warfare: The Gauls were renowned for their skills in warfare. They were especially noted for their use of the chariot in battle until they encountered Roman tactics. Warrior elites displayed their status through ornate weapons and helmets.

Clothing: Typical clothing for men included trousers (an innovation associated with the Celts), tunics, and cloaks. Women wore long dresses, and both genders often adorned themselves with jewelry such as brooches, bracelets, and the aforementioned torcs.

Burial Practices: The Gauls constructed elaborate burial sites for their elite, often accompanied by chariots, weapons, and other grave goods, indicating a belief in an afterlife. Over time, cremation gained popularity.

"Tall, Fair Skin and Golden Hair": Strabo's Description of Gauls

The Greek geographer, historian, and philosopher Strabo (64 BC–24 AD) is best known for his monumental work, the *Geographica* (or "Geography"), which presented a detailed description of the known world during his time. He described the Gauls as follows:

"... [T]he whole race which is now called both 'Gallic' and 'Galatic' is war-mad, and both high-spirited and quick for battle, although otherwise simple and not ill-mannered…Both the men and the women are so tall in stature, and have such fair complexions, and are so good-looking, that the poets apply to them the designation of 'golden race,' because of their bodily beauty, and not only because they wear golden ornaments."[2]

The Gallic Wars: The Roman Invasion 58–50 BC

The Roman invasion of Gaul in 58 BC marked the beginning of the Gallic Wars, a series of military campaigns that lasted until 50 BC and culminated in the complete annexation of Gaul into the Roman Republic. Most of the records of this conflict come from Julius Caesar, whose book *Commentarii de Bello Gallico* ("Commentary on the Gallic Wars") remains the primary reference work, despite its obvious subjectivity.

These tumultuous events commenced with the entrance of another invading tribe of Indo-European Celts, known as the Helvetii (the name Helvetia, or Switzerland, derives from this tribe) into Transalpine Gaul.

The Helvetii began moving to Gaul to escape recurring Germanic incursions from the north. Their migration, however, destabilized the entire region.

The Aedui, the Gauls residing in Transalpine Gaul who were allies of Rome, appealed to Rome for assistance in preventing the Helvetii's passage through their territory. Rome consented and dispatched its governor of Cisalpine Gaul, General Julius Caesar, and an army to address the disturbances.

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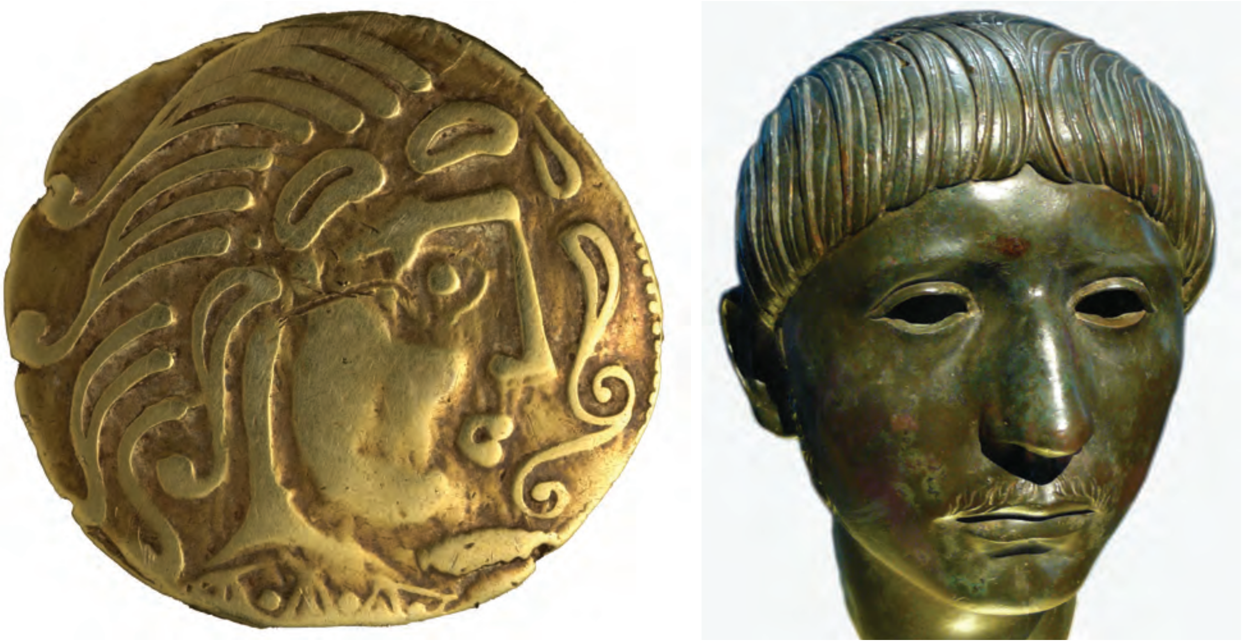
[2] *Geographica*, Strabo, Book IV, Chapter 4.

GAULS AS PORTRAYED BY THEMSELVES AND BY THE ROMANS



Above left: a gold coin issued by the Parisii Gauls of central Gaul, circa 200 BC. Although the person depicted on the coin is unknown, it is likely a representation of one of their chiefs or kings. (The Met Fifth Avenue, New York). Above right: A Roman bronze casting of a Gaul chieftain—an excellent depiction of a Gaulish nobleman from the time of the Roman invasion.

Caesar mobilized his Roman legions stationed in the province of Transalpine Gaul and fortified strategic locations, including the natural chokepoint at the Saône River, to hinder the Helvetii's progress.

When the Helvetii approached, the Roman army ambushed them in a surprise assault known as the Battle of the Arar (Saône). A rapid Roman victory followed, and the adversaries reconvened for a larger battle near Bibracte (Mont Beuvray). Despite the intense conflict, the Romans prevailed once more.

Pursuant to the surrender treaty they subsequently entered into, the Helvetii were instructed to return to their homeland (modern-day Switzerland), which they obeyed. Nonetheless, Caesar's actions solidified Rome's dominant presence in Transalpine Gaul.

In the same year, 58 BC, a Germanic tribe called the Suebi, led by their king Ariovistus, crossed the Rhine River and assaulted the Aedui Gauls. Caesar swiftly retaliated, vanquished the Suebi, and repelled them back across the Rhine River. This encounter initiated a four-year conflict during which the Romans expanded their dominion over almost all territories west of the Rhine River.

Campaign Against the Belgae 57 BC

According to Caesar's narrative, the Belgae Gauls began mobilizing an army to confront the Aedui. In response to the impending threat from the Belgae, the Aedui sought Rome's intervention. This situation afforded Caesar a rationale to invade Belgae territory. Through a sequence of battles, the Belgae were subdued, and Roman dominion expanded to the region currently recognized as northwestern Europe.

Campaign Against the Veneti 56 BC

Caesar's advance into northern Gaul brought the Roman forces into conflict with the Gaulish tribe known as the Veneti, who had settled along the Atlantic coastline. Unlike other Gaulish tribes, the Veneti were a seafaring people with a significant navy, and their primary defenses were coastal fortresses. In 56 BC, the Veneti detained some of Caesar's envoys, effectively declaring war on the Romans. Anticipating a Roman response, the Veneti formed a coalition with neighboring maritime tribes. Given the Veneti's dependence on naval power, the Romans confronted them at sea. Despite the Veneti's sturdy ships, built to endure the harsh Atlantic conditions and to resist boarding attempts, the Romans employed innovative tactics. They used hooks to cut the ropes of the Veneti's sails, making their ships immobile and easier to board.

After the Roman fleet established naval dominance, Caesar besieged the Veneti's fortresses. With their naval capabilities neutralized, the Veneti's strongholds surrendered one after the other. Following their defeat, Caesar took severe measures: the Veneti's elders were executed, and the remainder were sold into slavery.

The First Bridge Across the Rhine, 56 BC

Several Germanic tribes had been raiding Gaul, and although Caesar had vanquished many of them, he understood the symbolic significance of showing that Rome could penetrate the heartland of the Germanic tribes and that a river would not impede the Roman advance.

During a lull in the campaigns in Gaul, Caesar planned a reconnaissance mission across the Rhine River. He instructed the building of a bridge, a task completed in merely ten days, serving as a profound testament to Roman engineering skill.

Under Caesar's guidance, Roman legionnaires built the bridge solely from wood. The army's engineers devised pile driving machines and positioned the supporting beams at an angle against the river's flow, ensuring stability against the Rhine's currents. They then added crossbeams and planks to finalize the bridge. The finished bridge spanned the river, allowing legions to march across in formation. After crossing, the Germans retreated and avoided confrontation. Within 18 days, the Romans departed, and Caesar commanded the bridge's demolition to prevent its use by the Germans.

Expeditions to Britain 55–54 BC

Later that year, Caesar initiated the first of his two invasions of Britain. The primary aim of this initial invasion was reconnaissance, not an extended conquest. Caesar was intrigued by this island, considered somewhat mythical in the Roman world, and desired first-hand insight into its inhabitants, landscape, and resources. Moreover, certain British tribes had been aiding the Gauls in resisting Caesar's Gallic campaigns. By attacking Britain, Caesar aimed to sever this support.

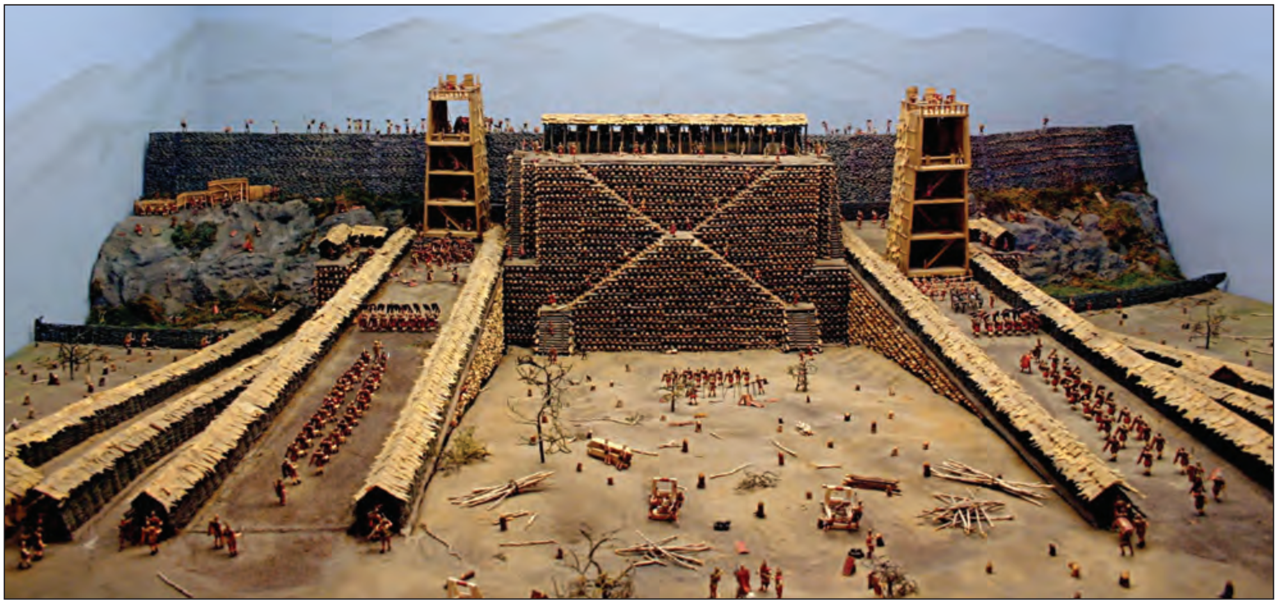
Upon landing, the Romans refrained from moving deep inland. Encircled by aggressive tribes and experiencing severe weather that harmed their ships, Caesar recognized his unpreparedness for a prolonged campaign and decided to return to Gaul.

Caesar's second invasion of Britain in 54 BC was a more substantial effort than the first. He assembled a fleet of around 800 ships to transport five legions and 2,000 cavalry, landing without opposition this time. Several battles with the Celts in

EXQUISITE GAULISH GOLDWORK, 4TH CENTURY BC

Left: The "Agris Helmet" (Casque d'Agris), a Gaulish helmet from circa 350 BC, found in the region of Nouvelle-Aquitaine, southwestern France. It is made of bronze and then covered with pure gold leaf with embedded coral decorations attached using silver rivets. (Musée d'Angoulême, Nouvelle-Aquitaine.) Right: A perfect gold-plated bronze disc, found at the Gaulish settlement at Auvers-sur-Oise, Val-d'Oise, and dated to the early 4th century BC. (Cabinet des Médailles of the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, France.)

THE SIEGE OF AVARICUM: CAESAR'S BLOODIEST VICTORY, 59 BC



Avaricum was the major city of the Bituriges Gauls. An oppidum with unusually high walls and surrounded by topography that provided a natural defense, the city's defenders believed it was impenetrable. When the Romans reached the city, Caesar personally designed siege works, which included a terrace with two flanking walls, another wall between these flanking walls to connect them, and two siege towers. The entire structure was constructed in just 25 days. At its completion, the Romans stormed the city, slaughtering all its inhabitants. According to Caesar's account of the event, only 800 of the 40,000 Gauls within the city survived. (Model at the Museum of the United States Military Academy, West Point, New York.)

Britain ensued, most notably with tribes called the Mandubracii and the Catuvellauni. The Mandubracii were defeated, but the Catuvellauni, led by Cassivellaunus, conducted an effective guerrilla war against the Roman forces encamped north of the Thames River. Cassivellaunus was betrayed by the Trinovantes, another significant tribe, which revealed the location of his stronghold.

Consequently, Caesar captured the fort, compelling Cassivellaunus to seek peace. After Cassivellaunus's submission, Caesar imposed tributes and, having achieved a semblance of victory, returned to Gaul. The Romans would only begin a full-scale conquest of the island nearly a century later in AD 43, during Emperor Claudius's reign.

The Eburonean Revolt, 54 BC

The Gallic Eburone tribe, situated in present-day Belgium and led by their chieftains Ambiorix and Cativolcus, deeply resented the Roman presence. This presence frequently brought demands for tribute, food, and forced conscription. The revolt commenced with surprise attacks by the Eburones on isolated Roman contingents, leading to at least two extensive massacres of legionnaires. Caesar devoted the remainder of the year to organizing retaliatory raids, culminating in the utter annihilation of the Eburones. Subsequently, they vanish from historical records. Other Gallic tribes, observing the intensity of the Roman reaction, abandoned their intentions to rebel.

Second Bridge over the Rhine, 55 BC

The pressure from the German tribes east of the Rhine River resumed shortly after Caesar's initial crossing of the Rhine. By 55 BC, just one year after the first bridge's construction, Caesar commissioned a second bridge to support a fresh expedition into Germany's forests. Like its predecessor, the second bridge exemplified the Romans' adeptness at swiftly constructing large-scale infrastructure. While Caesar's writings do not describe the second bridge as comprehensively as the first, it likely employed a comparable pile-driven design, permitting quick erection and dismantling.

As before, the Germans retreated, and after a brief interval, the Romans departed, dismantling the second bridge in the process.

The Revolt of Vercingetorix, 52 BC

In 52 BC, the most serious and renowned rebellion against Roman rule in Gaul began. An alliance of Gallic tribes, led by Vercingetorix of the Arverni, initiated a scorched earth strategy. This tactic aimed to starve the Roman forces of supplies by burning Gallic towns and fields before the Romans could arrive. While this strategy caused harm to the Gauls, it posed a greater challenge for the Roman legions due to their extended supply lines.

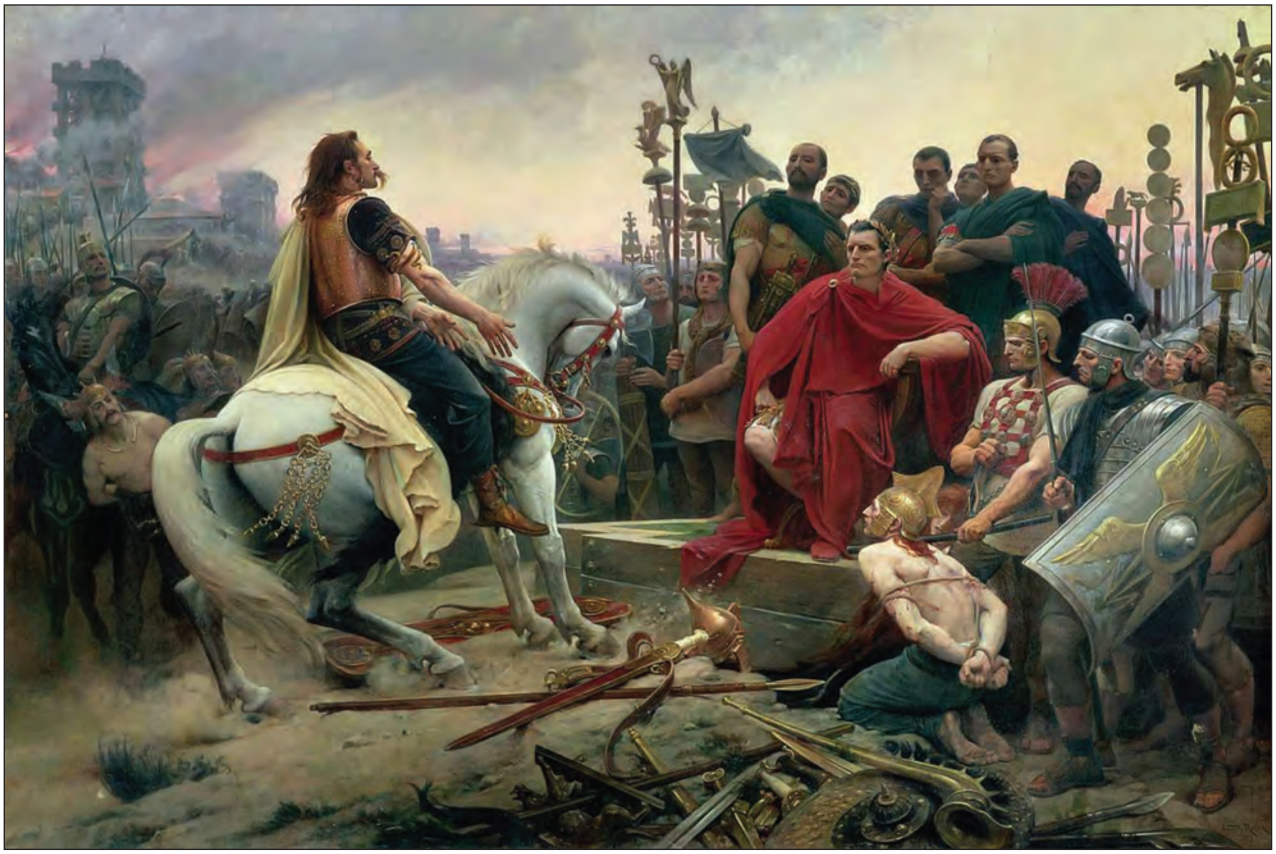
However, Vercingetorix was besieged at the fortified town of Gergovia, presently near the city of Clermont-Ferrand in the Auvergne region, in 52 BC. Situated on a plateau, the city provided a natural defensive position. Despite numerous attempts, the Romans failed to subdue the Gauls, marking one of the few defeats Caesar faced. Consequently, the Romans retreated to devise a new strategy against the uprising.

The Siege of Avaricum, 52 BC

Avaricum, now known as Bourges in central France, was a fortified city of the Gallic Bituriges tribe, allies of Vercingetorix. The city, with its robust walls, was encircled by marshy grounds on all sides except one, presenting a formidable challenge for any besieger.

In response, Caesar directed his army engineers to erect siege structures, including a terrace and a tower to breach the city walls. Vercingetorix's army, stationed in close proximity, consistently attempted to disrupt the Roman forces but could not end the siege. After 27 days and the completion of the Roman siege apparatus, the Romans initiated a comprehensive assault. While Caesar acknowl-

VERCINGETORIX SURRENDERS TO JULIUS CAESAR, 52 BC



*The Gaulish rebellion came to an end when the rebel leader, Vercingetorix, surrendered to Caesar. After conquering present-day France and then moving on to Britain, Caesar had to return to Gaul to face a full-scale rebellion in 52 BC, led by Vercingetorix. After being cornered and besieged at Alesia, the Gaulish chief surrendered to Caesar to save his people. Caesar sent him to Rome in chains, where he was kept prisoner for six years before being executed. (*Vercingetorix Throws Down his Arms at the Feet of Julius Caesar, *painting by Lionel Royer, 1899, Crozatier Museum, Le Puy-en-Velay, France.)*

edged the Gauls' spirited defense, the Roman military might overwhelmed the defenders.

Following the city's breach, a massacre took place. In his account of the war, Caesar records that of the city's estimated 40,000 inhabitants, only 800 endured. The Romans appropriated the city's supplies, and showcased the victory as an illustration of the hopelessness of opposing Rome.

The Siege of Alesia, 52 BC

Subsequently, Vercingetorix selected the fortified hilltop town of Alesia as a stronghold, aspiring to replicate the success of Gergovia. Recognizing the significance of this engagement, Caesar proceeded to lay siege to the city.

Anticipating challenges from both the city's defenders and the projected Gallic reinforcements, Caesar commissioned the building of extensive fortifications. These comprised two walls: The inner wall, spanning approximately 11 miles, was designed to besiege Vercingetorix's forces within Alesia. The outer wall, stretching about 13 miles, was erected to shield the Romans from expected Gallic reinforcements.

As anticipated, a substantial relief force from diverse Gallic tribes, possibly numbering in the hundreds of thousands, convened to disrupt the siege and support Vercingetorix. The ensuing confrontations were fierce. The Gallic reinforcements consistently sought to penetrate the Roman defenses, while concurrently, Vercingetorix's troops attempted to break free from within.

However, the Gallic assaults proved fruitless. Facing deteriorating conditions inside Alesia, chiefly due to the scarcity of food and water, Vercingetorix opted to capitulate to prevent further hardships for his people. Captured and transported to Rome, he remained imprisoned for several years before being showcased in Caesar's triumph, and then being publicly executed.

Gaul Transformed into Roman Provinces

Within another year, almost all opposition had subsided. Thereafter, Gaul became an integral part of the Roman Empire. Undergoing Romanization, it was divided up into a number of provinces:

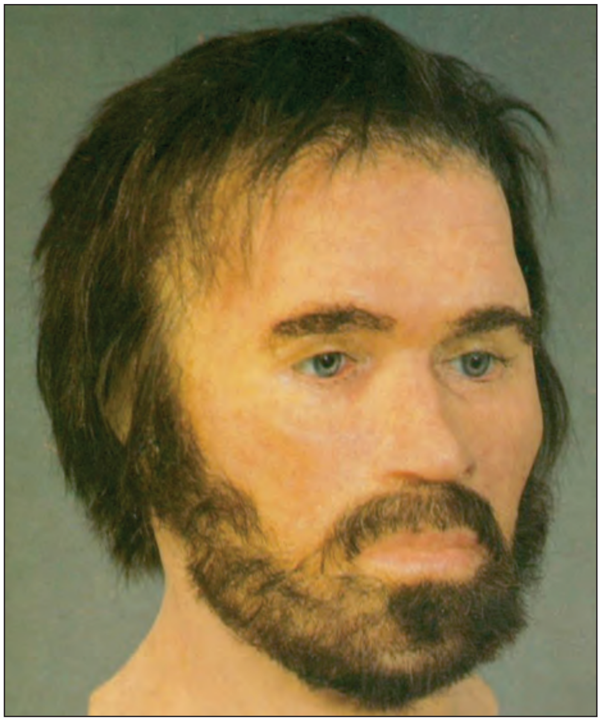
(a) Gallia Narbonensis (or Provincia. This latter term evolved into the modern name "Provence," denoting southern France, and is the origin of the current administrative region of Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur). Gallia Narbonensis took its name from its capital, Narbo Martius, today's city of Narbonne;

(b) Gallia Lugdunensis (northwest and a slice of central present-day France);

(c) Gallia Aquitania (present-day southwest France, where the current regional name of Aquitaine originates); and

(d) Gallia Belgica (today northern France, Belgium, and Luxembourg, along with parts of the Netherlands and Germany).

CELTIC TYPE FROM BRITAIN, 100 AD

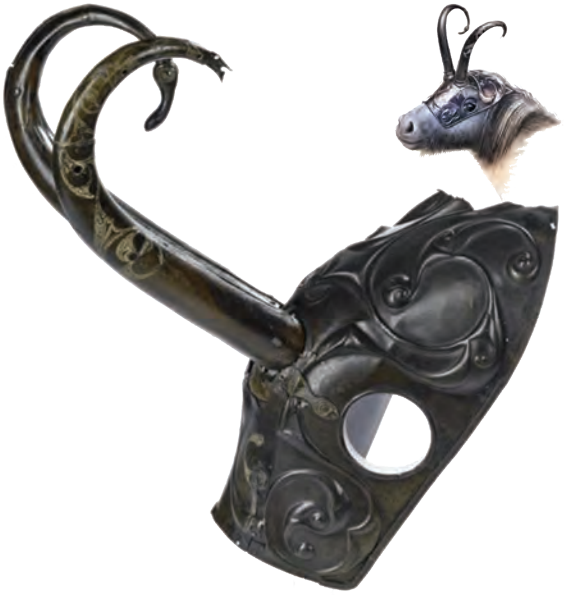


A reconstruction of the head of Lindow Man, the Iron Age body (100 AD) found in a Cheshire, England, peat bog in 1984, represents the typical Celt that the Romans encountered, battled, and eventually mingled with, in Britain. (British Museum, London.)

The Celts in Britain

The island of Britain had also been settled by waves of Celts as part of the Indo-European movement of peoples, producing the same mix of European types as had happened elsewhere in Europe. Generally, though, the Celtic Britons were not as Nordic as their cousins in France. This was due to the fact that a smaller number of Nordic Celts had crossed the English Channel to mix with the original Neolithic population of Britain. As a result,

THE TORRS PONY CAP, 300 BC



The Torrs pony cap is a decorated Iron Age cap designed to fit on the head of a pony. It might have been intended to give the pony a frightening appearance or to serve ceremonial purposes. Contrary to the indicated date, it dates from approximately 300 BC. It is crafted from two pieces of sheet bronze riveted together, reinforced with a strip along the edges. Beside it is a depiction of how the pony cap might have been used. (National Museum of Scotland, Edinburgh.)

this mix resulted in a larger number of Britons with dark hair and blue or brown eyes.[3]

Strabo Describes Celts of Britain

The Greek geographer Strabo, in his work *Geographica,* described the Celts of Britain he had seen as follows:

"The men are taller than the Celts of Gaul: their hair is not so yellow and their limbs are more loosely knit. To show how tall they are I may say that I saw myself some of their young men at Rome, and they were taller by six inches than any one else in the City; but they were bandy-legged and had a clumsy look."[4]

The population was organized into numerous tribal territories, each with its own rulers or chieftains. Fortified hillforts, like Maiden Castle in Dorset, served as tribal centers, offering protection and acting as symbols of tribal power.

Druids Prominent in Britain

Celtic religious life in Britain was, like that of their continental cousins, overseen by a Druidic priestly class. Most of their rituals corresponded with the changing of the seasons, as evidenced by their four main festivals:

- Samhain, a festival marking the end of the harvest season and the beginning of winter. It was celebrated with bonfires, feasting, and rituals. This time was reserved for offering food and drink to the departed and appeasing potentially malevolent spirits to ensure a safe and productive winter.
- Beltane, which marked the midpoint between the spring equinox and the summer solstice. It signified the start of the warmer season and is thought to derive from the Celtic god Bel (meaning "bright" or "brilliant") and the Gaelic word tene (meaning "fire"). The most notable activity was Maypole Dancing, a tradition which long outlasted the Celtic era.
- Imbolc, also known as Brigid's Day, marks the halfway point between the winter solstice and the spring equinox. It signifies the beginning of the transition from winter to spring and celebrates the returning light and the early signs of spring. Imbolc is closely associated with the Celtic goddess Brigid, the deity of fire, healing, poetry, and smithcraft.[5] This is equivalent to the Germanic Ostara, the goddess of Spring and new life.
- Lughnasadh, marking the onset of the harvest season, is primarily associated with the reaping of grain and the first fruits of summer. The festival was named after the Celtic god Lugh, a deity linked with light, arts, crafts, and skills.

Celtic Art and Languages

Also like their Celtic cousins on the European continent, the Celts in Britain drew heavily upon La Tène style in their art, characterized by swirling patterns, stylized animals, and intricate designs. Their craftsmanship was on par with other European civilizations, as demonstrated by items such as the famous Battersea Shield and the Torrs Pony-cap and Horns.

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[3] Later Scandinavian and Germanic invasions, particularly along the east coast, would bring in a new wave of Nordic blood, as recounted in a later volume of this work.

[4] *Geographica,* Strabo, Book IV, 278.

[5] With the Christianization of the Celtic regions, Brigid's role was adapted, and she became St. Brigid of Kildare, one of Ireland's patron saints.

The Celts in Britain spoke variants of the Brythonic branch of the Celtic languages. These would eventually evolve into languages like Welsh, Cornish, and Breton, which are still spoken in small numbers to the present day.

New Roman Invasion, 43 AD

In the century following Caesar's expeditions into Britain, Rome established diplomatic relations with several tribes in Britain. Some of these tribes even became allies or clients of Rome.

However, in 42 AD, Emperor Claudius ordered a full-scale invasion of the island with the aim of formally annexing it to the empire. The precise motivation for the invasion remains unrecorded, but it likely stemmed from a desire for glory on Claudius's part, or as a response to some British tribes' failure to honor their treaties with the Romans.

An invasion force was assembled under General Aulus Plautius, comprising approximately 40,000 Roman soldiers, including both legions and auxiliaries. This army landed on England's south coast and swiftly overcame the initial resistance.

Early Celtic Resistance 43–50 AD

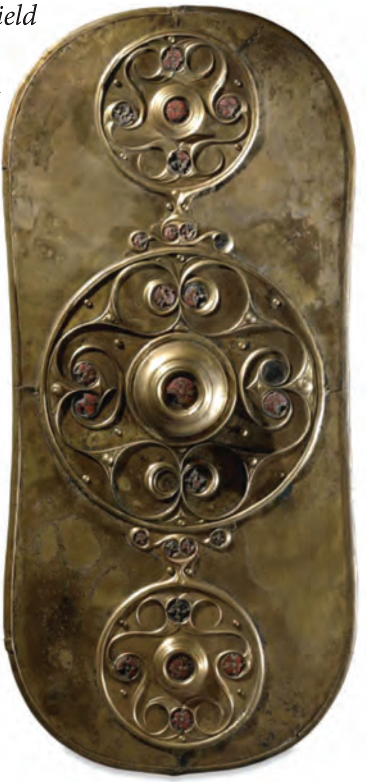
The Catuvellauni tribe, under their king Cunobelinus, had ascended to dominate south-eastern Britain during this period. They provided the first line of resistance against the Roman invasion. Cunobelinus, seemingly too aged to participate in combat,[6] delegated power to his sons, Togodumnus and Caratacus, who then led the armed resistance against the invaders.

Togodumnus fell in one of the initial clashes, while Caratacus rose to prominence as one of the primary resistance leaders opposing Roman rule.

Meanwhile, the Romans progressed beyond the Thames River. At this juncture, Emperor Claudius personally joined the invasion, bringing with him additional troops and war elephants, a sight previously unseen in Britain. Given these circumstances, it was unsurprising that the Roman forces swiftly seized the Catuvellaunian capital, Camulodunum (now known as Colchester).

After facing defeat in the southeast, Caratacus migrated west, uniting various tribes and leading a guerrilla campaign against the Romans. He is closely linked with resistance in present-day Wales, leveraging the region's challenging topography against the Roman legions. Around 50 AD, Caratacus faced a significant loss to the Romans at the Battle of Caer Caradoc, a confrontation believed to have occurred at a hilltop fort in the English county of Shropshire.

CELTIC BRITAIN'S "BATTERSEA SHIELD," 300 BC



The Battersea Shield is an outstanding representation of La Tène art, discovered in the Thames River near the Battersea district of southwest London (and hence its name). It was made in pre-Roman Britain between 300 and 100 BC. The shield, made of several pieces of sheet bronze, is adorned with 27 red glass-framed studs. It would only have been used in ceremonial rituals. (British Museum, London.)

Caratacus and Claudius, 50 AD

Caratacus sought refuge with the Brigantes tribe in the north, but their queen, Cartimandua, an ally of Rome, betrayed him and handed him over to the Romans. Caratacus and his family were taken to Rome as captives. According to the Roman historian Tacitus, when brought before Emperor Claudius and the Roman Senate, Caratacus delivered a speech with such eloquence that his life was spared and he lived out his days in freedom.

Discontent Persists as Romans Strengthen Hold on England

Following the capture of Caratacus, the Romans focused on fortifying their influence in the newly annexed territories. This entailed the establishment of Roman-style towns, thoroughfares, and additional amenities. Camulodunum was cultivated as a principal Roman colony, where veterans were stationed.

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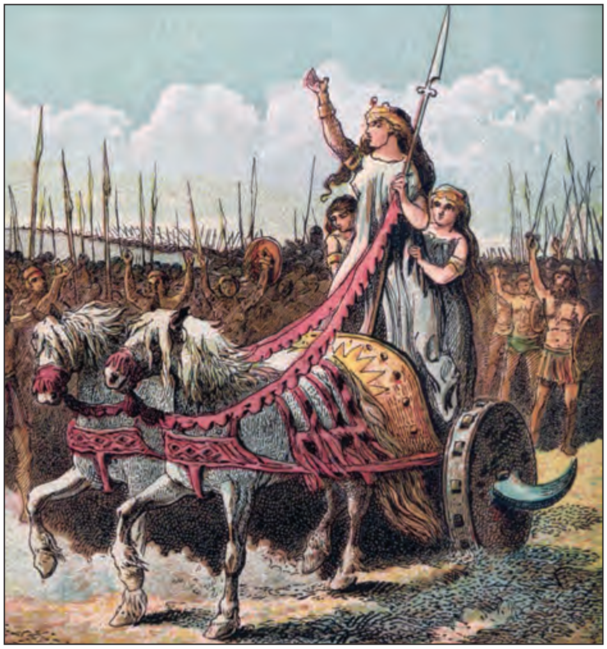
[6] King Cunobelius is thus remembered in the English nursery rhyme, "Old King Cole."

QUEEN BOUDICEA LEADS REVOLT, 60–61 AD



Queen Boudicea of the Iceni led the Celtic rebellion against Roman rule in 60–61 AD. She achieved great victories and overran the Roman towns of Colchester and London. The Celtic queen was defeated at the Battle of Watling Street, where, Tacitus records, eighty thousand Britons were killed.

In their unifying endeavors, the Romans promoted the dissemination of their culture. Temples arose, notably one in Camulodunum dedicated to Emperor Claudius. A portion of the indigenous elite began to embrace Roman customs, but to a large number of Britons, these adaptations were perceived as alien impositions.

Certain tribes displayed more resistance to Roman dominion than others. While some tribal chieftains found merit in affiliating with the Romans, many viewed them as subjugators. The specific dynamics of Roman interactions with the various tribes diverged, with some tribes being more amenable and others more confrontational.

A significant bone of contention was the fiscal strain imposed on the tribes. The Romans introduced substantial taxes and also facilitated loans, via Roman lenders, to the tribal aristocracy. These loans, in turn, necessitated repayment. Such fiscal obligations led to considerable difficulties and were a continual source of tension.

The War Against the Druids

The Druidic stronghold was on the island of Mona (now called Anglesey), a large landmass situated off the northwest coast of Wales. This island also served as a refuge for Celts opposing Roman rule, and as a result, it became a breeding ground of unrest and attempted uprisings.

By 60 AD, the Roman governor of Britain, Gaius Suetonius Paulinus, embarked on an expedition to Mona with the intention of eliminating the Druidic stronghold, thereby undermining the spiritual and political base of the Druidic resistance.

The Roman forces were completely victorious, overpowering the defenders and demolishing all the sacred groves and shrines. This campaign effectively terminated the central Druidic influence in Britain. The obliteration of the Druidic hub at Mona was not merely a military conquest for the Romans but also marked the curtailment of ancient Celtic religious and cultural traditions.

Boudicea's Revolt, 60–61 AD

While Governor Suetonius was engaged in his campaign on Mona, the gravest revolt against Roman dominion emerged: the Iceni rebellion led by Queen Boudicea.

The Celtic Iceni tribe occupied what is now the region of East Anglia in England. Following the Roman invasion in 43 AD, they maintained a collaborative relationship with the invaders. However, upon the death of their king, Prasutagus, in 60 AD, he bequeathed half of his realm to his two daughters and the remainder to the Roman Empire, hoping such an arrangement would safeguard his lineage and territory. The Roman administration, contrarily, disregarded his last wishes and annexed the entire kingdom. Adding to the affront, Roman soldiers publicly flogged Prasutagus's widow, Boudicea, and raped her two daughters. This atrocity, coupled with widespread grievances against Roman governance, burdensome taxation, and cultural encroachments, sparked a significant rebellion.

"Tall, Tawny Hair": Boudicea

Boudicea was, according to the Roman: historian Cassius Dio, a fairly typical Britannic Celt:

"In stature she was very tall, in appearance most terrifying, in the glance of her eye most fierce, and her voice was harsh; a great mass of the tawniest hair fell to her hips; around her neck was a large golden necklace; and she wore a tunic of divers colors over which a thick mantle was fastened with a brooch."[7]

Roman Towns Burned to the Ground

Boudicea, rallying the Iceni and other tribes disenchanted with Roman rule, such as the Trinovantes, mobilized a massive force against the Romans. The rebels began by attacking Camulodunum. Almost all of the Roman Ninth Legion was killed in a disastrous attempt to relieve the besieged city. The city fell and was burned to the ground, with all its Romans and their allies being massacred. Terror spread, and the absence of Governor Suetonius caused the Roman response to be disorganized.

ROMANS FOUND CITY OF LONDON IN 43 AD

A statue of Emperor Trajan stands near a remaining section of the Roman city wall that once surrounded their town of Londinium (now known as London). In 200 AD, Londinium was designated the capital of the Roman province of Britannia Superior, *a title it has maintained ever since.*

Boudicea's forces then descended upon Londinium and surrounded it. Unable to gather enough forces to defend the city, Governor Suetonius ordered its evacuation. The Iceni warriors then also burned it to the ground. The Roman city of Verulamium (today known as St. Albans) faced a similar fate, with Boudicea's forces destroying the city and killing its inhabitants.

Battle of Watling Street: Roman Organization Triumphs, 61 AD

At last, Governor Suetonius, regrouping and assembling his forces, chose a location with a narrow approach, flanked by dense woodlands, to confront Boudicea's much larger army. The specific location of this battle remains unknown, except that it was fought somewhere along a Roman road named Watling Street that ran north from London.

The site which Governor Suetonius chose preventing him from being outflanked. He understood that while his forces were vastly outnumbered, their superior discipline, training, and equipment would give them an advantage in these conditions.

The Britons, with their chariots and vast numbers, were confident. They even brought their families in wagons to the battlefield, expecting a decisive victory. They placed these wagons at the edge of the battlefield, effectively creating a barrier to their retreat. As the Britons charged, the Romans held their line, using their *pila* (heavy javelins) to break the Celtic charge and then advanced in the *testudo* (tortoise) formation. The disciplined advance of the Romans began to push the Britons back against their own wagons, turning their earlier confidence and numerical superiority into a disadvantage.

The slaughter was complete. Despite being heavily outnumbered, the Romans managed to achieve a decisive victory. Tacitus reports that the Britons suffered around 80,000 casualties while the Romans lost only 400. The fate of Boudicea after the battle is uncertain. Some sources claim she took poison to avoid capture, while others suggest she fell ill and died.

The Iceni and other tribes involved in the rebellion faced severe reprisals. The Romans were able to reassert their control over Britain after this victory, though resistance continued in various forms for years. In some areas, such as Scotland, the Romans were never able to subdue the natives completely. One of these rebellious tribes, the Caledonians, almost defeated the Roman legions at the Battle of Mons Graupius in 83 AD. The Romans prevailed, but the ferocity of the far northern Celtic defense meant that the Romans never took full advantage and slowly withdrew southward.

Roman Provinces Established

Once this last major uprising had been crushed, the Romans established the province of Britannia.

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[7] *Roman History,* Book 62, 2. Cassius Dio,

HADRIAN'S WALL BUILT 122 AD

Hadrian's Wall stretched seventy-three miles across the north of England, from east to west coast at that nation's narrowest geographic point. The Vallum Aelium, *its official name, was completed in 122 AD.*

This was soon subdivided into *Britannia Superior* in the south and *Britannia Inferior* in the north.

The Romans introduced their own style of administration, constructed roads and towns, and brought Roman culture, the Latin language, and their pantheon of gods to Britain.

By 122 AD, the Roman emperor, Hadrian, having visited the province of Britain, ordered the construction of a fortified wall across the north of England to repel the northern barbarians. Many sections of this wall, named after Hadrian, are still visible today.

Britons Become Roman Citizens, 212 AD

By 200 AD, the Romans were firmly entrenched in England (as opposed to Britain), and the Romanization process was nearly complete. This process was accelerated by the 212 AD Edict of Caracalla, which granted Roman citizenship to all free inhabitants of the empire. This led to the automatic legalization of the already de facto situation of soldiers taking wives from the local population.

This policy did not have the same racial impact on the Romans in Britain and France as it did on the Romans in the Middle East. The blending of Roman, Celtic, and original European subgroups did not disturb the racial homogeneity of either the conquerors or the conquered peoples, unlike in the southern and eastern parts of the empire where the local nonwhite populations soon outnumbered the white Romans.

Carausius Revolt of 287 AD

In 287 AD, the admiral of the Roman Channel fleet, Carausius, declared himself Emperor of Britain and Northern Gaul and started minting his own coins.

His tenure as self-appointed Emperor lasted until 293 AD, when he was assassinated by his treasurer, Allectus, who then ordered the building of the "Saxon Shore Forts" along the coasts of Britain, both to strengthen defenses against the Germanic tribes to the east but also to prevent Rome from sending a fleet to recover Britain for the empire. These attempts were in vain, because in 296 AD, the Roman Empire recaptured Britannia and Allectus was killed in battle near Silchester. Britain was then split up into four provinces; *Maxima Caesariensis* (northern England up to Hadrian's Wall), *Britannia Prima* (the south of England), *Flavia Caesariensis* (the Midlands and East Anglia) and *Britannia Secunda* (Wales).

According to Roman records, the rebels used a large number of German mercenaries. Ironically, many of the recently arrived Roman legionnaires were also German mercenaries. This rebellion marked the last major armed action undertaken by the Romans in Britain.

Roman Control Lost 410 AD

As the Roman Empire began to falter due to its cosmopolitan nature, central control over the most distant colonies became increasingly difficult. By around 410 AD, Emperor Honorius directed the Roman legions to officially withdraw from Britain, and the people of Britain were informed that they no longer maintained a connection to Rome and that they should protect themselves.

Within a brief period, Britain faced a new wave of invaders: the Saxons and other Teutonic peoples. The Celts were however, now for the greatest part been completely Romanized, and the only remnants of Celtic culture had been pushed to the very western fringes of that country, into what is today known as Wales and Cornwall.

Chapter 18: Germania Magna—The Germans and Rome

The Germanics, who comprised the original population of northwestern and central Europe—today broadly encompassing the area of the Netherlands, the northern part of Germany, and Poland—were part of a significant subwave of Germanic peoples who migrated south from Scandinavia during the first millennium BC.

Originally, these people were, of course, one of the most important parts of the significant Indo-European invasions of Europe, but the details of precisely how they arrived in southern Scandinavia have been lost in the sands of time. Nonetheless, through linguistic analysis and archaeological detective work, it has been clearly established that they had begun moving south into the tip of northern Germany by at least 800 BC. From then on, further migrations south marked their presence in much of Germany, almost all of what became northwestern Europe, Poland, and eventually even further east and south.

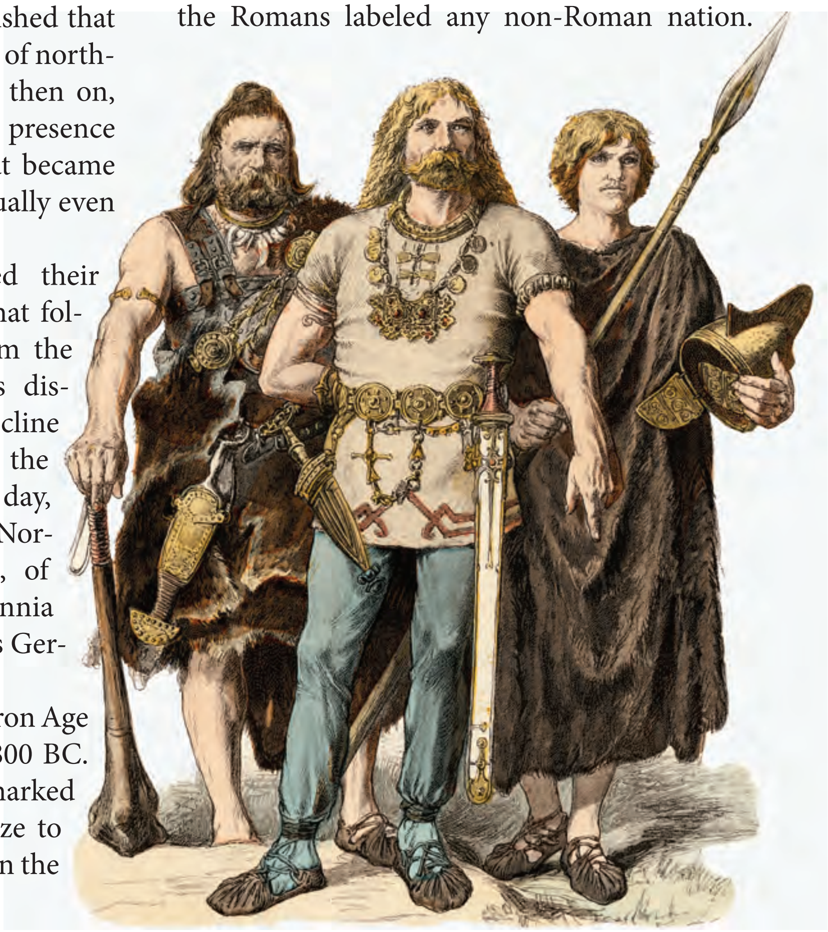
In these regions, they encountered their sub-racial cousins, and the admixture that followed produced phenotypes drawn from the contributing groups. These phenotypes displayed, as would be expected, a Nordic cline from the northwest going south. This is the primary reason why, even in the present day, original northern Germans appear more Nordic than southern Germans, although, of course, admixture throughout the millennia has created a spread of phenotypes across Germany.

It is therefore no coincidence that the Iron Age in northern Europe also began around 800 BC. The northern European Iron Age was marked by a much swifter transition from bronze to iron, a sure indicator of a sub-racial shift in the demographics of the population.

Forestation Prevents Urban Areas

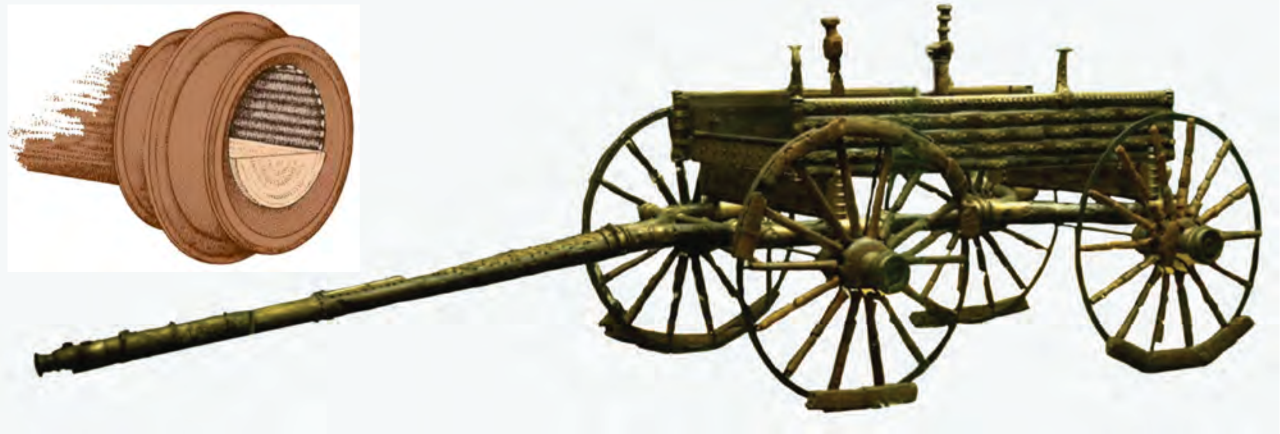
During this early historical period, much of central Europe was forested, a factor that largely influenced the nature of early Germanic society. Unlike the Italian peninsula, where population growth and urbanization occurred rapidly due to spatial constraints, in the vast forests of central and northern Europe, there was no environmental impetus to form urban towns. Instead, the Germanics expanded, basing their society and economy on agriculture and pastoralism rather than urban secondary industries, trading, and manufacturing, as Roman society had developed.

As a result, there were no significant cities as the Romans had constructed. This does not mean, however, that the Germanics were the "barbarians" that the Romans labeled any non-Roman nation.



An artist's depiction of typical Germanic warriors, circa 10 BC. The warrior in the center possesses a Roman sidearm, acquired from a Roman soldier. The warrior on the right holds a bronze helmet, likely taken from a Gaulish auxiliary serving with the Romans.

PRE-ROMAN GERMANIC ROLLER BEARINGS CIRCA 700–500 BC



Discovered in the Jutland Peninsula in Denmark in the early 1880s, the Dejbjerg wagon is dated as having been built between 500 and 50 BC. It is made of oak and ash wood coated in bronze, giving it a shining, ornate appearance. Decorated with intricate imagery, including masks and animals, it is distinctly part of the La Tène cultural style. However, its most remarkable feature is its axles: they contain an astonishingly sophisticated roller bearing system of wooden pins in a bronze brace. This system, known today as a differential, allows the wheels on the same axle to turn at different speeds from each other. This system is used in all modern vehicles and permits the wagon to take corners smoothly, where the inside wheel rotates faster than the outside wheel. Such sophisticated technology indicates that the pre-Roman Empire Germanics were not "barbarians" but were highly developed people capable of stunning technological feats. (National Museum, Copenhagen, Denmark.)

These forest-dwelling Germanics were capable of highly technologically advanced achievements, as the renowned Dejberg wagon, with its sophisticated differential axle system, clearly demonstrated.

Germanic Society: An Early Form of Democracy

The Germanic tribes shared certain cultural, linguistic, and religious traits, but they were not a unified group. They had a warrior-based culture, with prestige often linked to personal heroism and prowess in battle.

Their societies were predominantly tribal, often led by chieftains or kings, with societal structures that included freemen, slaves, and classes in between. Decisions, especially those concerning warfare or significant tribal matters, were often made in communal gatherings, a form of democracy comparable to that developed either later or simultaneously in Classical Greece.

The Roman historian Tacitus, in his invaluable 98 AD work *Germania,* says that the Germanics would elect a king with "regard to birth," being drawn from a body of 50 generals whose bravery had been proven in battle.[1] These "generals" derived their command and loyalty through personal example and "carry with them to battle certain images and standards taken from the sacred groves."[2]

On matters of great importance, no decision would be made until the entire community had been consulted at a tribal gathering. This often resulted in prolonged decision-making, Tacitus noted.

Germanic Religion: A Pantheon of Deities

The Germanic religion, in common with all other Indo-European origin peoples, shared many deities, and their pantheon of gods closely resembled those of classical Greece, Rome, and even the evolved form of that religion, Hinduism in India.

However, the Germanic gods are more widely recognized than even the Greek or Roman gods. This prominence stems from their enduring influence on contemporary culture and the commercial popularization of many of their leading mythologies, ranging from the profound intellectual works by Richard Wagner[3] to the crass Hollywood film interpretations of the early 21st century.

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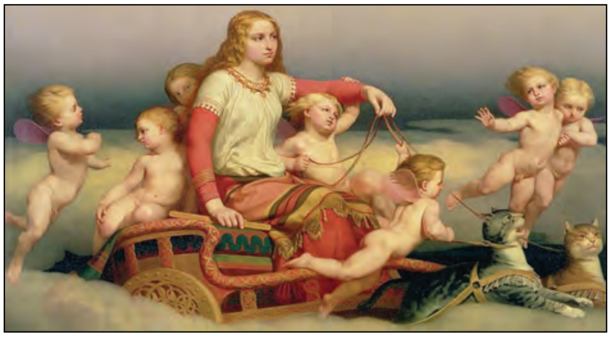
[1] *Germania,* 7, Tacitus, 98 AD.

[2] *Ibid.*

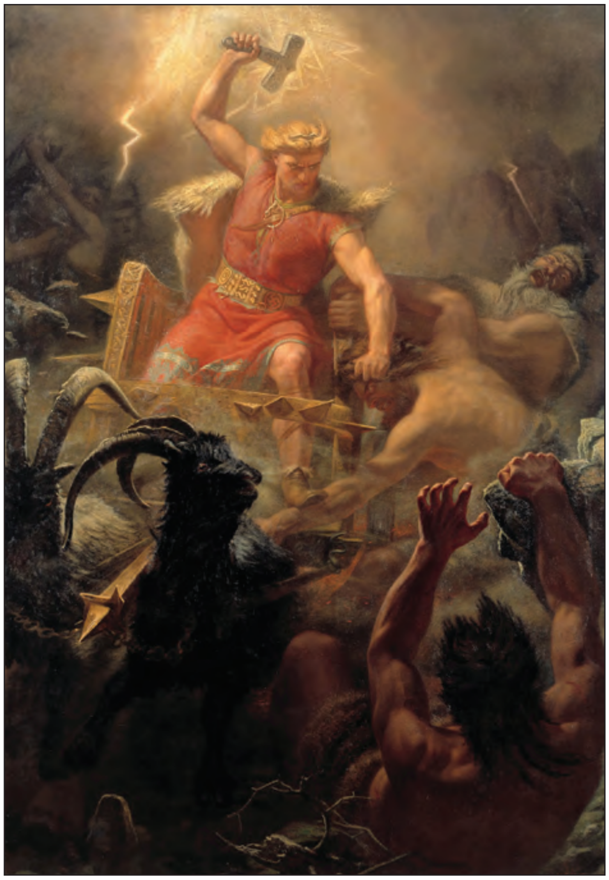
[3] Wagner's *Der Ring des Nibelungen,* "The Ring of the Nibelung," composed from 1869 to 1876, draws its characters from Germanic sagas and is widely regarded as the greatest opera cycle ever written.

FREJA, GODDESS OF LOVE, FERTILITY, AND BEAUTY



*Freja, the Germanic goddess of love, fertility, and beauty, rides in her chariot drawn by cats. (*Freja Seeking her Husband, *Nils Blommér, 1852. Nationalmuseum, Stockholm.)*

THOR STRIKES DOWN THE GIANTS



*Thor strikes down the giants with his mighty hammer. (T*hor's Fight with the Giants, *Mårten Eskil Winge, 1872. Nationalmuseum, Stockholm.)*

The chief characteristics of Germanic religion and its array of gods were:

- The world was the product of the great world-tree, Yggdrasil, which spanned all time and space. Yggdrasil, however, was continually under attack from an evil serpent, Nidhogg. The fountain of Mimir, the source of hidden wisdom, lay beneath one of the tree's roots.
- Odin (also known as Odhinn—called Woden by the Anglo-Saxons, and Wodan or Woutan by the Germans) was the king of the gods. His two black ravens, Huginn ("Thought") and Muninn ("Memory"), flew all over the world to report on the actions of men and gods alike.
- Odin's court was in the grand citadel of Valhalla, where all valiant warriors went after dying in battle. When Odin traveled, he rode his eight-footed steed, Sleipner. He armed himself with his spear, Gungnir, and his most precious jewel, the ring known as Draupner.
- Odin was also the god of wisdom, poetry, and magic, and he sacrificed an eye for the privilege of drinking from Mimir, the fountain of wisdom. Odin had three wives.
- Thor was the eldest son of Odin and the mightiest of the gods. His magic hammer, thrown with the aid of iron gloves, always returned to him on command.
- Odin's other son was Balder (or Baldur), the god of the sun, light, and joy, who was killed after the malevolent god Loki deceived his blind twin brother, Hoder, the god of darkness, into murdering him.
- Frei or Freyr was the son of the fertility god Njord. Freyr was the god of fruitfulness, prosperity, and peace, as well as the bestower of sunlight and rain. He roused the earth from the extended slumber of winter, and prayers for a fruitful harvest were addressed to him. Frey was the patron god of Sweden; his principal shrine was in Uppsala.
- Freyja or Freya was the goddess of love, fertility, and beauty, sometimes identified as the goddess of battle and death. Blonde, blue-eyed, and beautiful, Freyja traveled on a golden-bristled boar or in a chariot drawn by cats. In Germany, Freyja was sometimes equated with Frigg, the wife of Odin.
- Frigg or Frigga, was the goddess of the sky and wife of Odin, the chief of the gods. She was revered as the protector of marital love and housewives. A bunch of keys was her symbol.
- Tiu was the god of war and battles. He was depicted as having only one hand. Some stories claim

it was because he could grant victory to only one side, while others assert it was bitten off by the wolf Fenris.

- Hel was the goddess of the dead. She resided beneath one of the three roots of the sacred ash tree, Yggdrasil, and was a daughter of Loki. Odin banished Hel to the underworld, entrusting her with its oversight, and decreed she would never emerge again.
- Loki was a giant symbolizing evil, endowed with immense knowledge and cunning. Loki and Hel would marshal the forces of malevolence against the gods in the ultimate battle between good and evil, termed the "Ragnarok," or end of days.
- In addition to these primary deities, several lesser gods existed: Hermod, Bragi, Forseti, Idun, Nanna, and Sif.
- The Valkyries were a cohort of warrior-maidens, sometimes depicted as Odin's offspring. Among them was Brunhilde, a character immortalized by Wagner. The Valkyries assisted Odin in determining which warriors were worthy of entering Valhalla posthumously.
- In Valhalla, the warriors engaged in battle or feasting, awaiting the "Ragnarok," or the termination of their world.

Worship of these deities typically occurred outdoors, often near consecrated trees or amid stone configurations, with the Germanics utilizing and erecting megalithic sites in Europe for such ceremonies.

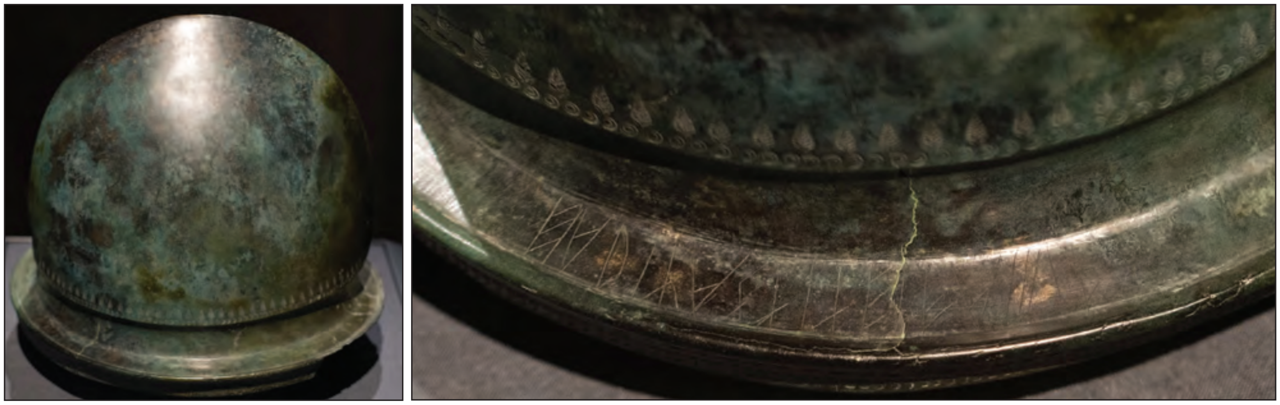
Sacred trees and groves held immense reverence among the Germanic people. One notably celebrated natural site used for such purpose was the *Externsteine,* a unique sandstone rock formation situated in the Teutoburg Forest, currently within the state of North Rhine-Westphalia. This remarkable rock formation was reputedly a revered site of the pagan Saxons and the location of the most renowned Irminsul (Old Saxon for "great pillar") idol.

The Germanics did not possess a priestly class (like the Celtic druids). If such a class existed, no

EXTERNSTEINE: REPUTED CENTER OF GERMANIC RELIGION

Shrouded in mystery and speculation, the Externsteine site is reputed to have been an ancient center of the Germanic religion and to have housed the greatest Irminsul (Old Saxon for "great pillar"), a pillar that was a central worship point for Germanic paganism. According to the 772 AD Royal Frankish Annals, the Christian Frankish king Charlemagne repeatedly ordered the destruction of the Irminsul. The site is also linked to speculation that it was used for astronomical observation, based upon a circular hole above an "altar stone" in one of its artificial caves, which faces the direction of sunrise at the time of the summer solstice.

NEGAU HELMETS WITH EARLIEST SURVIVING GERMANIC WRITING



The Negau helmets, a set of 26 bronze artifacts dating to around 350 BC, were found near the town of Negau (now in Slovenia). The runic inscription found on one of the helmets is the oldest surviving example of the first Germanic alphabet and writing system, which appears to be similar to the north Etruscan script. (Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna.)

evidence has surfaced. Nonetheless, certain individuals must have habitually conducted festivals and rites.

Writing Forms and Literature

Runes, or runic, is the original written Germanic language. The earliest known form of German writing was found at the Negau site (now the city of Negova in Slovenia) where several bronze helmets date back to at least 350 BC. Many of the helmets have runic inscriptions which have yet to be completely deciphered, but which bear some relation to early Etruscan. This is unsurprising, given the common Indo-European roots of both the Germanics and at least a part of the Etruscans.

No large bodies of Germanic literature have survived, and the oral traditions of Germania were only captured in writing much later, after contact with the Romans. The stories that were captured in this way have become legendary and widely known: *Beowulf,* the *Nibelungenlied*, and the Icelandic *Eddas* and *Sagas.*

Germanic Military Formations

The early Germanics possessed no formal armies and drew up forces from their civilian population when needed. As these tribes seemed to be in a near-constant state of war with each other, all fit men in an area could be called upon to rally to the group's defense, thereby developing a strong military tradition. This was, in turn, linked to individual status within that society, undoubtedly enhanced by the Germanic religions which praised bravery in battle and offered special rewards in Valhalla for brave soldiers killed during warfare.

According to Tacitus, the most common weapon each Germanic man possesses was a spear with a short iron blade which could be employed for both distance and close fighting.[4] Tacitus also remarked that Germanic cavalry, although present, was not decisive in their battle tactics, as their "horses are neither remarkable for beauty nor swiftness," and their principal strength lay with their foot soldiers. Germanic soldiers would also "carry off their slain even while the battle remains undecided" and the "greatest disgrace that can befall them is to have abandoned their shields."

Germanic Women: "Sanctity and Prescience"

One aspect of Germanic society that the Roman historian Tacitus deemed noteworthy was the respect shown for women. According to his account

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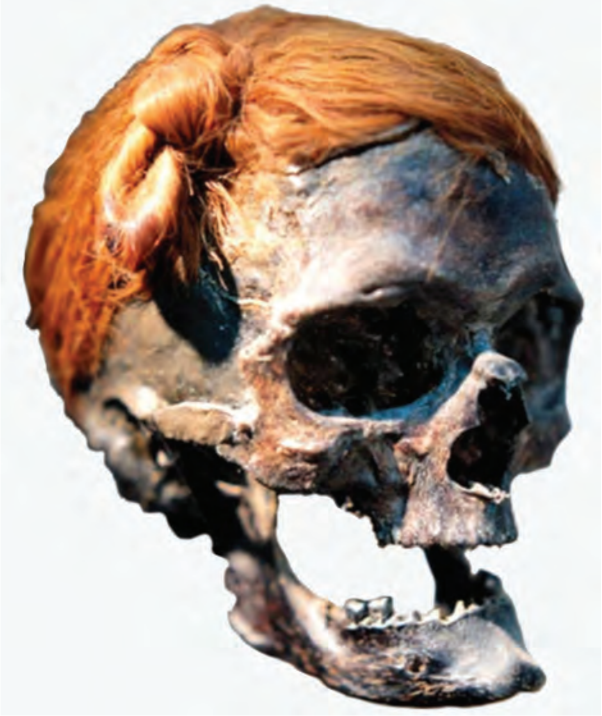
[4] *Germania,* 6, Tacitus, 98 AD.

OSTERBY SKULL WITH "SUEBIAN KNOT"



A skull, dated to around 100 AD, was discovered in 1948 by peat cutters outside the town of Osterby in Germany. The hair—preserved in the bog—displays what is known as a "Suebian knot," a hairstyle which, according to the Roman historian Tacitus, was common among the German Suebi tribe. The hair had been colored a reddish-brown by the acids in the bog, and a microscopic analysis conducted in 2005 revealed that its original color had been dark blond. (State Archaeological Museum, Schleswig-Holstein.)

of the Germans, Tacitus stated that the impetus to volunteer for military duty was primarily driven by the "yells of their women," and that they are the "most revered witnesses of each man's conduct." The Germanic women "also administer food and encouragement to those who are fighting."[5]

Furthermore, Tacitus notes, "armies beginning to give way have been rallied by the females, through the earnestness of their supplications, the interposition of their bodies, and the pictures they have drawn of impending slavery, a calamity which these people bear with more impatience for their women than themselves; so that those states who have been obliged to give among their hostages the daughters of noble families, are the most effectually bound to fidelity."[6]

On this topic, Tacitus informs his readers that the Germanics believe the attributes of "sanctity and prescience to be inherent in the female sex; and therefore [the men] neither despise their counsels, nor disregard their responses."

Many Germanic women were revered as near-deities, he concludes.

Germanic Laws on Marriage, Abortion, and Homosexuals

Marriage among the Germanics was sacrosanct, Tacitus reports. "The matrimonial bond is, nevertheless, strict and severe among them; nor is there anything in their manners more commendable than this."[7]

Polygamy was almost unheard of, and chastity was highly prized. "Men and women are alike unacquainted with clandestine correspondence. Adultery is extremely rare among such a populous people," Tacitus adds, noting that offenders were publicly shamed and driven away.

Furthermore, any attempt to "limit the increase of children, or put to death any of the later progeny [that is, any birth control or abortions] is accounted infamous."

Homosexuals, or "those who had defamed their bodies" (*[E]t corpore infames caeno ac palude, mergunt*") were "suffocated in mud and mire."[8]

This form of execution is the origin of the so-called "peat bodies," corpses discovered in bogs throughout Germanic Europe. These bodies all exhibit signs of having been murdered, most frequently by strangulation.

This was vividly demonstrated with the discovery of one of the most renowned "peat bodies," the 400 BC "Tollund Man" from Silkeborg on the Jutland peninsula in Denmark, who was found with a plaited animal hide noose drawn tight around his neck and extending down his back.

The Most Famous Germanic Tribes

Some of the more renowned Germanic tribes were:

- The Teutones (or "Teutons" as the name has come to be known as a designation for all Germans);

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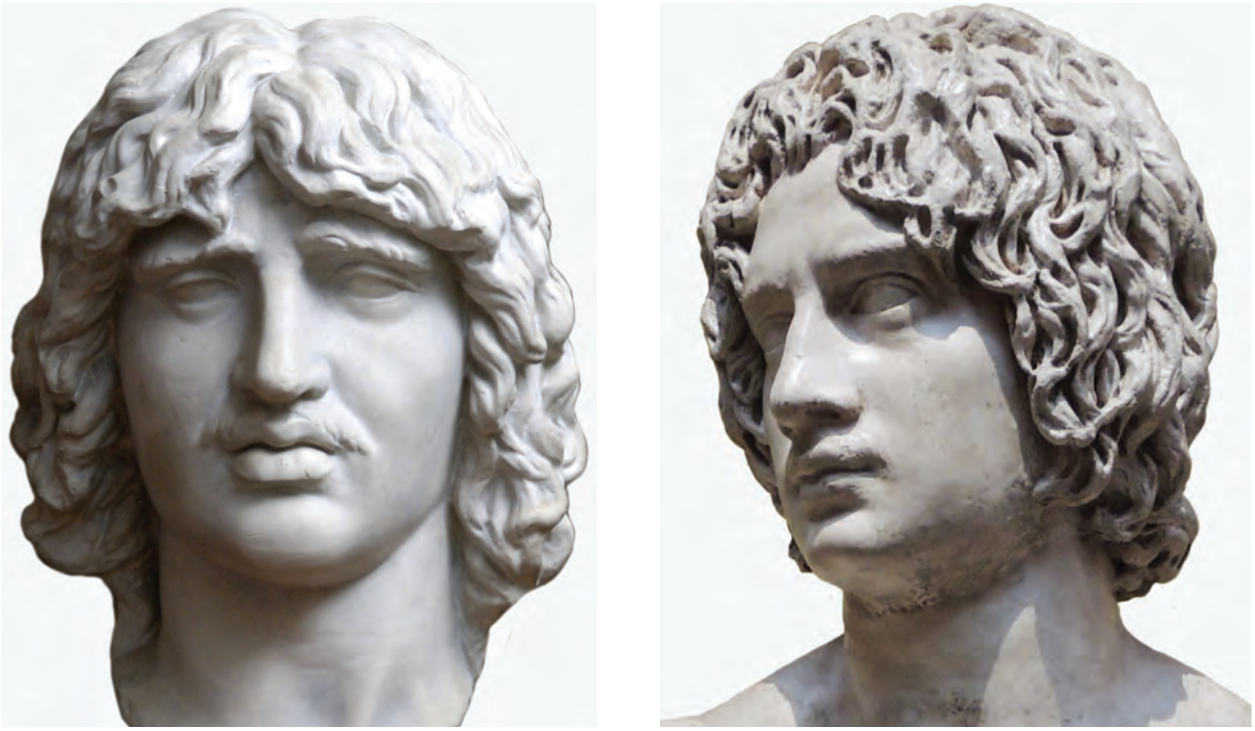
[5] *Germania,* 7, Tacitus, 98 AD.

[6] *Germania,* 8, Tacitus, 98 AD.

[7] *Germania,* 18, Tacitus, 98 AD.

[8] *Germania,* 12, Tacitus, 98 AD.

ROMAN DEPICTIONS OF GERMANS, 100 AD: "A FAMILY LIKENESS"



Above left: A bust of a male head, found in the villa of the emperor Trajan, dating from the early second century AD. Although it is not known who the individual is, it is clear from the hairstyle that he is a German. (British Museum, London.) Above right: Another Roman bust of a German. It is often claimed that this is supposed to be a representation of Arminius, or Hermann, Prince of the Cherusci tribe, but there is no fast evidence for this claim. (Capitoline Museums, Rome). As the Roman historian Tacitus remarked, the early Germanics were all so similar looking that a "family likeness" pervaded amongst them.

- The Cimbri (who inflicted significant defeats upon the Romans and were only prevented from overrunning Rome itself in 101 BC by a significant battle in what is today northern Italy);
- The Cherusci, a tribe in northwestern Germany that produced the greatest ancient German hero of all, Hermann;
- The Suebi, who later colonized the northern part of Iberia; the Goths (whose interactions with Rome significantly influenced the course of Western European history, and whose subdivisions, the Visigoths and the Ostrogoths, established settlements as far away as the Balkans, Iberia, the Black Sea, and, ultimately, Italy); and
- The Vandals (most renowned for their 455 AD sack of Rome, from which the English term "vandal" as a destroyer of property originates).

Usury Unknown to Germanics

Tacitus says that the practice of "lending money upon interest, and increasing it by usury, is unknown amongst them: and this ignorance more effectually prevents the practice than a prohibition would do."[9]

"A Pure and Unmixed Race": Tacitus's Description of the Germanics

Tacitus's description of the Germanic racial features affirms the predominantly Nordic nature of the early Germans. He begins by saying that the "people of Germany appear to me indigenous, and free from intermixture with foreigners, either as settlers or casual visitants,"[10] he goes on to say:

"I concur in opinion with those who deem the Germans never to have intermarried with other nations; but to be a race, pure, unmixed, and stamped with a distinct character.

"Hence a family likeness pervades the whole, though their numbers are so vast: eyes stern and

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[9] *Germania,* 26, Tacitus, 98 AD.

[10] *Germania,* 2, Tacitus, 98 AD.

ROMANS FORCE GERMAN NOBLES TO BEHEAD EACH OTHER

A detail from the relief on the victory column of Marcus Aurelius in Rome, dedicated in 193 AD, depicts Romans forcing Germans to behead one another following a victory in one of the military campaigns under Marcus Aurelius (161–180 AD).

blue; ruddy hair; large bodies, powerful in sudden exertions, but impatient of toil and labor, least of all capable of sustaining thirst and heat. Cold and hunger they are accustomed by their climate and soil to endure."[11]

500 Years of Intermittent War with Rome

As the Germanics increased in number, they gradually spread south, first coming into contact with other Indo-European tribes that had earlier settled in western, central, and eastern Europe, and later with the Romans, who were expanding from the south. This contact inevitably led to conflict, followed by 500 years of intermittent warfare that concluded with the final capture of the city of Rome by the Germanics in 467 AD.

The Cimbrian War (113–101 BC)

The first major clash between the Romans and the migratory Cimbri and Teutones tribes began in 113 BC when Gaulish and Celtic tribes, allied with the Romans, first reported the Germanic invaders to the north.

The Roman Republic dispatched troops northward and engaged the Germanics at the Battle of Noreia in 112 BC, in what is now present-day Austria. The Romans, under Gnaeus Papirius Carbo, attempted to halt the migration but suffered a severe defeat and were driven from the field.

This was succeeded by the Battle of Arausio in 105 BC, which also ended in a notable Roman defeat, with two armies being obliterated by the Cimbri and Teutones. The loss was so substantial that panic pervaded Rome due to the fear of an invasion.

These significant defeats prompted military reforms in Rome. The repeated setbacks were among the factors leading to the Marian Reforms, introduced by General Gaius Marius, which profoundly restructured the Roman legions.

At the Battle of Aquae Sextiae in 102 BC, near today's Aix-en-Provence in southern France, Marius, with his reformed army, decisively defeated the Teutones and Ambrones. The subsequent year, in 101 BC, Marius and his co-general Quintus Lutatius Catulus confronted the Cimbri in northern Italy at the Battle of Vercellae (near today's Italian town of Vercelli). The Romans achieved another emphatic victory, thereby eliminating this specific Germanic threat to Roman territories.

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[11] *Germania,* 4. Tacitus 98 AD.

Julius Caesar's Battles with the Germans

The subsequent significant encounter with the Germanics occurred when the Suebi tribe, led by their chief Ariovistus, resumed their migration from eastern Germania to the Marne and Rhine regions.[12] Six Roman legions under Julius Caesar quickly advanced northward to counteract the invasion. At the Battle of Vesontio on September 14, 58 BC, the intruding Germanics were routed and hastily retreated across the Rhine.

After the setback at Vesontio, most Germanics remained on the east bank of the Rhine while Roman forces under Caesar finalized the conquest of Gaul. On two occasions, Caesar briefly constructed a bridge over the Rhine and showcased his army's prowess in Germanic territories.

However, the impenetrable forests and the Germanic tribes' reluctance to engage compelled the Romans to return west in both cases. Nearly fifty years would pass before the Germanics would once more cross the Rhine River in significant numbers.

After subduing the Celts, Caesar faced a demand from Pompey in Rome to disband his army. Caesar subsequently led a march on Rome, an act that ultimately resulted in his assumption of power. Approximately six thousand German mercenaries accompanied Caesar's army to Rome, precursors to the many thousands who would later join the Roman army. This shift—the employment of German and Celtic mercenaries—proved instrumental in both deterring Romans from venturing into Germania and in sustaining the Roman Empire, especially after the dwindling of the original Roman populace.

DRUSUS: NEARLY CONQUERED GERMANY

Drusus Julius Caesar, commonly known as Drusus (38–9 BC), was the stepson of Octavian (later known as Augustus) and the biological son of Livia Drusilla, Augustus's third wife. His most notable achievement was his series of campaigns in Germania from 12 to 9 BC. During these campaigns, he led the Roman legions across the Rhine, delving deep into the territory of the Germanic tribes and reaching as far as the Elbe River. It is likely that had he not been killed after falling off his horse, he would have completed the conquest of Germania. (National Archaeological Museum, Naples.)

The Lollian Disaster, 16 BC

In 16 BC, Roman forces under the command of General Marcus Lollius patrolled the region now recognized as western Germany, situated to the east of the Rhine River.

This area was inhabited by several Germanic tribes, including the Sicambri, Tencteri, and Usipetes. The Roman army, inclusive of the Fifth Legion "Alaudae,"[13] was ambushed by these tribes. The Germanics triumphed, capturing the eagle standard (*aquila*) of the Fifth Legion—a profound disgrace given the emblem's status as a primary military symbol of Roman legions. This standard was subsequently reclaimed, and the legion persisted in its forays into the territory, which the Romans had already started referring to as Germania Magna or "Greater Germany."

Drusus Campaigns in Germany

By 15 BC, Roman borders extended as far north as the Danube River and as far east as the Rhine, but beyond the latter river, hostile Germans still lurked. Finally, in 12 BC, Rome attempted once more to expand eastward over the Rhine.

To this purpose, Nero Claudius Drusus, better known as Drusus, the stepson of Octavian Augustus, was sent with an army to start the incursions in 14 BC.

Drusus's first step was to secure Rome's frontier along the Rhine, and for this purpose, he constructed fortresses along the river to ensure Roman dominance. Three of these fortresses later became

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[12] See Chapter 17.

[13] *Alaudae* translates as "Lark", apparently so named after the crested helmets worn by legionnaires, which resembled the crest of a lark.

9 BC MEMORIAL TO DRUSUS, MAINZ, GERMANY

The Roman general Drusus was held in high regard by his troops. Their profound sorrow at his premature death in 9 BC led them to construct a monumental tribute to him within the confines of their principal fortress at Mogontiacum (present-day Mainz in Germany). Originally clad in marble, the memorial is now known as the Drususstein (Drusus Stone). It once stood at an impressive height of over 60 feet (20 meters). In subsequent years, this memorial became the focal point of a magnificent complex that featured a theater with a seating capacity of 12,000, making it the most expansive of its kind north of the Alps.

important German cities: Mogontiacum (now known as the city of Mainz); Bonna (now known as the city of Bonn); and Castellum apud Confluentes (now known as the city of Koblenz).

At the same time, Drusus launched punitive expeditions against the Usipetes and Sicambri tribes, forcing them to resettle on the western bank of the Rhine.

In 12 BC, Drusus conducted naval expeditions on the North Sea coast, confronting and defeating the Frisii and Chauci tribes. These two tribes then signed a peace treaty, by the terms of which they became some of the first Germanic tribes to formally ally themselves with Rome. On his way back to his base in Gaul, Drusus also managed to defeat a surprise naval attack by the Bructeri tribe.

The following year, 11 BC, he set out for Germania once again, this time with five legions and a number of auxiliaries—German mercenaries—at his disposal. With this overwhelming force, he defeated another two German tribes, the Tencteri and the Usipetes, and after reaching the southern parts of central Germania (the present-day German state of Thuringia), he was forced to turn back as winter was now approaching.

As Drusus was making his way back to Gaul, one of the largest and most powerful tribes in the northeast of Germania, the Cherusci, launched a surprise attack on the Roman forces. Despite being caught off-guard, the Romans fought back and scattered the Cherusci attackers. As punishment, Drusus left a garrison in Cheruscan territory for that winter, with the expectation that the defeated Germanics would supply the Roman forces with tributes and sustenance.

The next year, 10 BC, a renewed Germanic attack was made on Drusus's camp, this time by a joint force made up of the Chatti and the Sicambri tribes. They were, however, driven off and pursued over the Rhine River.

The next year, 9 BC, he led the Roman armies through the territories of the Marsi and Cherusci tribes until they crossed the Elbe River. Here, after erecting a marker which fixed his furthest point of penetration (today somewhere between the cities of Berlin and Dresden), Drusus turned back once again. On his way back to his base, he fell from his horse and was fatally injured.

Tiberius Subdues Germany, Hands over to Ahenobarbus 9–6 BC

Drusus was replaced as commander of the Roman forces in Germania by his brother, Tiberius Julius, later to be better known when appointed the successor to Octavian Augustus, becoming the first openly named Imperator, or emperor, of Rome.

In two swift campaigns, Tiberius subdued almost all of Germania between the Rhine and the Elbe Rivers, with only the Sicambri tribe offering any notable resistance. Tiberius then ordered the last of this tribe to be forcibly removed from their homeland and moved to the eastern side of the Rhine, where, surrounded by greater numbers of Romans and Romanized Gauls, they could better be kept under control.

Control of the Rhine Legions was then handed over to General Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus in 6 BC. Within 3 years, Ahenobarbus had reached and crossed the Elbe River, going even further east than Drusus had reached. It seemed that all of Germania would finally fall and be incorporated into the Roman Empire.

Rebellion Erupts among the Cherusci, 5 BC

However, the next year, Ahenobarbus received disturbing news. The Cherusci tribe, still living in the forests on the east bank of the Rhine River, had launched a rebellion. Ahenobarbus was forced to return to the west but was unable to bring the Cherusci under control, despite some factions of the tribe wishing to remain at peace with Rome.

By 2 BC, Octavian Augustus had replaced Ahenobarbus with General Marcus Vinicius, who, for the next six years (until 4 AD), dealt with continuous unrest in the Cherusci-held areas. No details of this unrest have survived, but it must have been significant.

In 4 AD, Tiberius returned to Germania to take control of the Roman legions once again. For the next two years, he waged a renewed war against the Canninefati, the Attuarii, the Bructeri, and he believed, finally subdued the Cherusci. In 5 AD, he defeated the Chauci tribe and then, once again without opposition, moved his troops to the Elbe, where they were met by a Roman fleet that had entered the river from the North Sea. Like Drusus, Tiberius did not leave a garrison on the Elbe and instead returned to the Rhine, fighting off renewed attacks from local Germans on the way.

Convinced that Germania was pacified, Tiberius returned to Rome. Octavian Augustus appointed a new commander of the Rhine Legions, General Publius Quinctilius Varus. He, and many other Romans, assumed that Germania would soon be another Roman province.

Hermann Cherusci—Trained by the Roman Army

The Roman policy of drawing subjugated peoples into the administration of their own territories and Romanizing them was also applied in Germania. In the year 1 AD, two young Cherusci princes, the sons of the king of that tribe—who at that time was friendly toward the Romans—were selected to be sent to Rome and commissioned in the Roman army. The younger of the brothers became completely Romanized and took on the name Flavius, which means "yellow," or "blond" in Latin (a reference to his hair color). He became so Romanized that his real name has been lost to history.

VARUS: ROMAN LEADER IN GERMANIA, 9 AD

Publius Quinctilius Varus (46 BC–9 AD) served as the Roman commander of the legions in Germania in 9 AD. A coin bearing his likeness, believed to have been used to pay his legionnaires, was discovered near Osnabrück, Germany. This location is close to the battlefield in the Teutoburg Forest, where the Roman leader took his own life. (Museum and Park Kalkriese, Germany.)

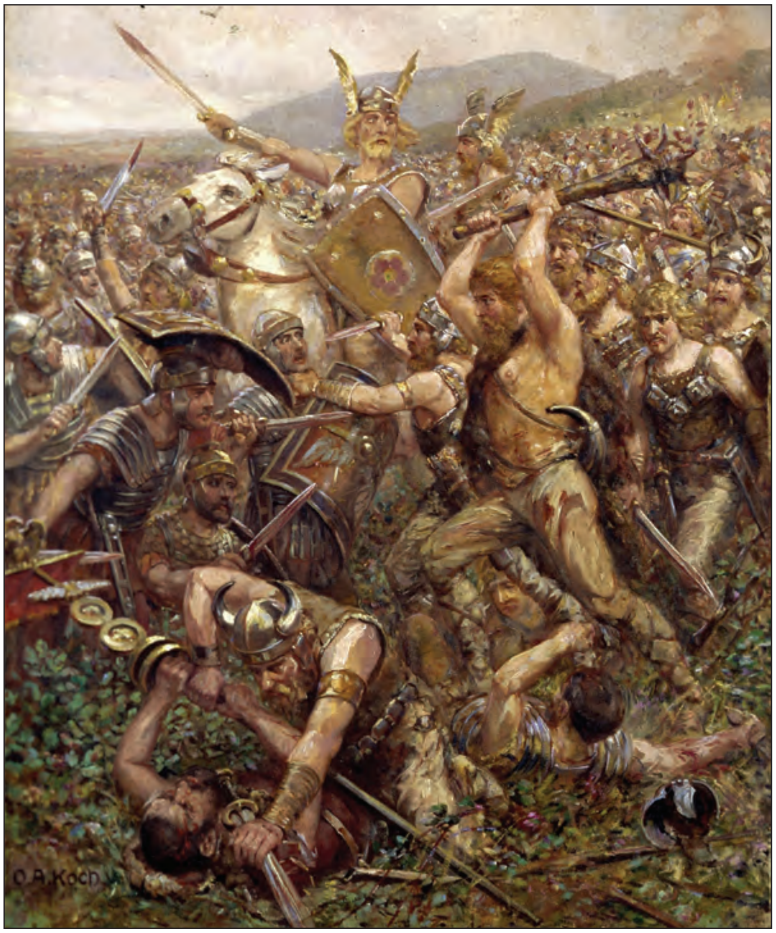
His older brother, Hermann, however, only kept his German name, Hermann, alive, and the Romans, respecting this, Latinized it as "Arminius." This was the name by which he won infamy in Rome.

Hermann served five years in a Roman legion, became a Roman citizen, and was employed on active service in two expeditions against other rebellious colonies. He was then returned to his homeland in 8 AD as a senior soldier and administrator in the region under Varus. No one on the Roman side considered that Arminius was anything but a loyal Roman subject, even if of "barbarian origins."

Hermann Prepares a Rebellion

As soon as he was in a position to act, Hermann set about organizing a rebellion among the Germans. Using his position as a German prince to

ROMANIZATION OF GERMANY HALTED, TEUTOBURGER WALD 9 AD



The Battle of Teutoburger Wald ("forest")in 9 AD marked a turning point for the Roman Empire in the West. Hermann Cherusci was a Romanized German who, after being appointed to a senior post in the Roman army, used his position as a German prince to organize a rebellion against Roman rule in Germany. After orchestrating a diversion and deceiving the main occupying Roman army into entering a forest near the present-day town of Detmold, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans. Following days of intense hit-and-run attacks, fifteen thousand Romans perished, and the few survivors retreated across the Rhine River, which subsequently became the German/Roman border. (Varusschlacht, Otto Albert Koch, 1909. Lippisches Landesmuseum, Detmold.)

influence a large number of German tribes, Hermann secretly began preparing his own great German army, utilizing much of what he had learned during his training in the Roman army.

The long period of Cherusci resistance to the Romans provided the foundation of discontent upon which he was able to build up a powerful force. Furthermore, he was appointed commander of the Germanic auxiliary forces which accompanied the Roman legions in Germania, providing him with yet another recruiting base. His plan, as he explained it to his rebellious fellow Germans, was to use his knowledge of Roman military tactics to draw the legions into a trap where they would be unable to deploy their defensive formations. The thick forests of the Teutoburger Forest provided the ideal topography.

9 AD Battle of Teutoburger Wald—Rome's Most Significant Defeat

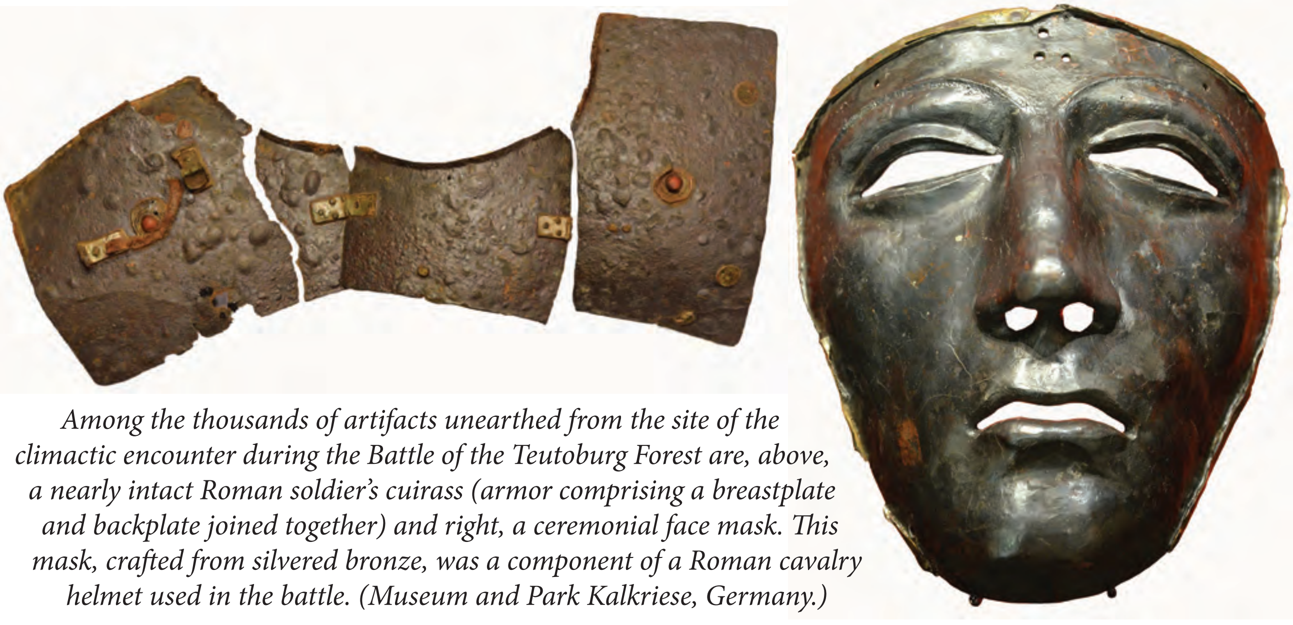
By 9 AD, Hermann's preparations were ready. He commanded a significant force among the Germanics in the forest. While Varus's three legions (Legios XVII, XVIII, and XIX) were encamped west of the Weser River (in the present-day German state of North Rhine-Westphalia), Hermann arranged to have some Germanics start a diversionary battle to the east. Hermann reported to Varus that he would take the Germanic auxiliaries to investigate the report, and that he would send messages back advising of the situation.

Varus, completely trusting Arminius, duly waited until receiving the promised message from his loyal German. The message was to proceed immediately in the direction of the disturbance. It would be the last time Arminius would say anything to Varus.

Still not suspecting anything, Varus roused his three mighty legions—at least 16,500 soldiers and their support train, a mass of over 20,000 souls—and set off. Hermann sprang his trap. Catching up with the unsuspecting Roman column in the forest, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans. For three days the battle raged, with Hermann employing unusual guerrilla tactics, repeatedly attacking and then suddenly withdrawing into the forest before the Romans could form their set battle formations.

Hermann also knew from his training in the Roman army that his enemies did not have an adequate defense against this tactic, as the narrow

ROMAN MILITARY RELICS FROM THE TEUTOBURG FOREST BATTLE



Among the thousands of artifacts unearthed from the site of the climactic encounter during the Battle of the Teutoburg Forest are, above, a nearly intact Roman soldier's cuirass (armor comprising a breastplate and backplate joined together) and right, a ceremonial face mask. This mask, crafted from silvered bronze, was a component of a Roman cavalry helmet used in the battle. (Museum and Park Kalkriese, Germany.)

forest paths forced the Romans to be spaced out, unable to form any coordinated defensive position. The Roman column was so stretched out that parts of it would come under attack, and other parts of it would be so far away that they would not even be aware they were under attack.

After three days of continuous ambushes, the Romans were exhausted. No sleep, constant attacks by German raiders, and unfamiliar territory took their toll. The Roman lines broke at a chokepoint between a hill and a marsh, a carefully prepared bottleneck where the Germanic onslaught delivered its coup de grace to the survivors of the last three days.[14]

Only a handful of Roman soldiers escaped from the forest to tell the tale. Most were killed in combat, and Varus committed suicide. Those Romans who were captured suffered the fate of many Germans and Celts who had earlier fallen into Roman hands—they were killed on the spot.

News of the victory spread throughout occupied Germania, sparking off a rebellion which forced the Romans to retreat all the way back to the western side of the Rhine River once again.

Octavian, reportedly aghast at the extent of the Varus defeat, sent Tiberius back to Germany to try and rescue the situation. His efforts were only partially successful, and when Octavian died in 14 AD, Tiberius was elected Emperor by the Senate in Rome. His adopted son, Germanicus[15]—the biological son of General Drusus—was then appointed commander of the Rhine legions, which now numbered eight in total.

Germanicus Campaigns in Germany, 14–17 AD

In 14 AD, Germanicus moved against the Germanic Marsi tribe as his first punitive action. Using intelligence gained from previous small incursions, he set as his first goal the recovery of the lost Roman eagles (aquilas) from the disaster of 9 AD. This first campaign eventually led to the recapture of the XIXth Legion's aquila from the Bructeri tribe.

The next year, Germanicus led a two-pronged attack: while his general, Aulus Caecina Severus, marched his forces through the Bructeri region, Germanicus took his troops north, facing off against various Germanic tribes, including the

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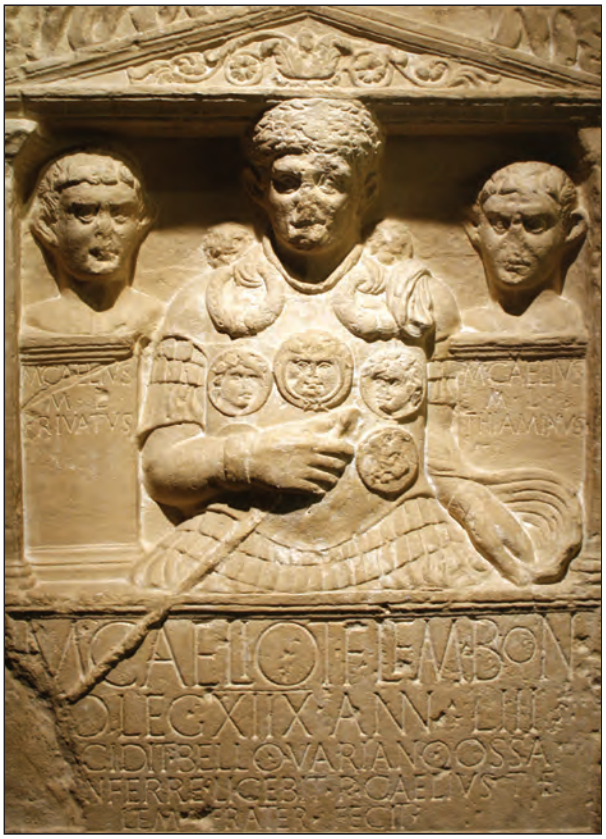
[14] The location of the battle was long debated, but in 1987, an amateur archaeologist discovered the site. Today, it is a significant location that has yielded a treasure trove of artifacts from the battle.

[15] Germanicus's original name remains unknown. He adopted the name "Germanicus," which had been posthumously awarded to his father in honor of his earlier victories in Germania. As he consistently used this name, his birth name was never recorded. Upon being adopted by Tiberius, he added the name "Julius Caesar," making his full name, as recorded by Roman historians, Germanicus Julius Caesar.

MONUMENT TO ROMAN SOLDIER KILLED IN 9 AD



An original Roman monument to one of their soldiers killed at the Battle of the Teutoburg Forest in 9 AD. The writing reads as follows: "To Marcus Caelius, son of Titus, of the Lemonian voting tribe, from Bologna, a centurion in the First Order of legio XVIII, aged 53; He fell in the Varian War. His bones—if found—may be placed in this monument. Publius Caelius, son of Titus, of the Lemonian voting tribe, his brother, set this up." (Rheinisches Landesmuseum, Bonn.)

Chatti. There were skirmishes and engagements, with the Romans burning the sacred grove of the Bructeri.

Germanicus At Teutoburger Battlefield, 15 AD

Six years after the battle of the Teutoburger Forest, Germanicus led a Roman expedition to the fateful 9 AD battlefield site. The scene they encountered there is vividly described by Tacitus:

"In the plain between were bleaching bones, scattered or in little heaps, as the men had fallen, fleeing or standing fast. Hard by lay splintered spears and limbs of horses, while human skulls were nailed prominently on the tree-trunks. In the neighboring groves stood the savage altars at which they had slaughtered the tribunes and chief centurions. Survivors spoke of the tribunal from which Arminius made his harangue, all the gibbets and torture-pits for the prisoners, and the arrogance with which he insulted the standards and eagles."[16]

Hermann Defeated Twice in 16 AD

In 16 AD, at the Battle of the Weser River (also known as the Battle of Idistaviso), Germanicus finally fought a large battle with the Germanics under the direct command of Hermann himself. The battle ended in a notable victory for the Romans, where their superior discipline and tactics won the day.

Hermann was wounded in the battle but managed to avoid being captured. The Germanics prepared themselves to retreat east across the Elbe River. However, the sight of Roman soldiers erecting a pile of German weapons on the battlefield, and then inscribing the makeshift monument with the names of the defeated tribes, incited the Germans to recommence the fight, this time centered around a fortified earthwork wall located in the territory of the Angrivarii tribe (today the German state of Lower Saxony).

This second, follow-on battle, known as the Battle of the Angrivarian Wall, saw yet another Roman victory, and the final smashing of the alliance of tribes supporting Hermann.

Last Major Campaign against Germanics, 17 AD

Germanicus then ordered General Gaius Silius to campaign against the Chatti tribe while he attacked the Marsi tribe and forced their defeated chief Mallovendus to reveal the hidden location of another of the three legion's eagles lost in 9 AD. In this way, two of the three lost *aquilas* were found and returned to Rome. The third was never recovered, and the legion's numbers were never again used by Rome.

Germanicus was then recalled to Rome by Tiberius, honored, and given a new command. At this point, Tiberius decided that it would be impossible to ever finally subdue Germania Magna, and, after handing over the territories to the immediate east of the Rhine to friendly or allied Germans, the Romans accepted the Rhine River as the final border between their dominions and Germania. Even though Hermann had been defeated, his purpose in keeping the Romans out of Germany had been achieved. Although Hermann had succeeded in uniting the German tribes against Rome, this unity was short-lived. Hermann was assassinated in 21 AD—by a German. Thus, Germania once again became a land of fierce and warlike tribes, all battling with each other for territory as they had done before the advent of the Roman incursions.

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[16] *Annals,* I, 61–62, Tacitus.

Roman Withdrawal Marks Turning Point in European History

The decision by the Romans not to further pursue the conquest of Germania drastically shaped the future geopolitical layout of Europe. With Germania remaining outside of Roman influence, the Germanic tribes retained their own distinct languages, traditions, and customs. This allowed for the development of a unique Germanic identity, distinct from the Latinized cultures of Western Europe. This also directly led to the preservation of the knowledge of the Germanic religion, their pantheon of gods, rituals, and religious beliefs. Had the Romans been successful in their conquest, the Germanic peoples would have been Christianized more rapidly than they were, which would have altered the religious landscape of Europe.

Most significantly, the division between Roman and Germanic territories set the stage for the future migrations and invasions of the Western Roman Empire by various Germanic tribes (such as the Vandals, Visigoths, Ostrogoths, etc.). These migrations played a key role in the eventual collapse of the Western Roman Empire.

Roman-German Border Fixed until Fall of Rome

For the remainder of the 1st century AD, the Romans mostly focused on defensive measures along the Rhine frontier rather than large-scale offensives. They built the *Limes Germanicus,* a series of fortifications and defensive works stretching from the Rhine to the Danube, indicating a shift from expansionism to border defense.

Rome Starts Using German Mercenaries

From the 2nd century AD on, Rome began to rely increasingly on German and Celtic mercenaries to fill the ranks of its armies.

This was caused by demographic changes within Italy which resulted in declining numbers of Romans who were either capable of, or interested in, serving in the military.

The irony of the situation was demonstrated in the 2nd century AD, when Germanic tribes went on the offensive against Rome and crossed the Danube River. They were decisively defeated by a Roman army, which contained a significant number of German and Celtic mercenaries.

By the 3rd and 4th centuries, Germanic tribes known as the Franks and the Saxons also raided Roman settlements in France and Britain, respectively.

Finally, a Romanized German soldier, Odoacer, while serving the last emperor, Romulus Augustus in Rome, deposed the emperor and took on the title of “king of Italy.” By that date (476 AD), the last true original Romans had disappeared, having been absorbed into a mass of immigrants.

GERMAN MERCENARIES IN THE SERVICE OF ROME, 161 AD

A depiction of a German cavalryman serving in the Roman army. As the number of white Romans dwindled, the Roman army began to heavily rely on German mercenaries to bolster its ranks. (Base of the column of Antoninus Pius, Vatican Pinacoteca, Rome.)

Chapter 19: Racial Cauldron—Rome, Africa, and the Middle East

The story of Roman expansion to the east is as dramatic as the conquest of western Europe. However, there was one critical difference with a significant consequence. The extension of the empire's borders to the east led to its downfall, as this became the gateway for a vast number of people to be drawn to Rome who possessed a different genetic inheritance than the original founders.

Mixed Racial Makeup of North Africa

By the time of the first Roman expansion into North Africa, large areas of the region had a racially diverse population. Even the Carthaginians, originally of Phoenician origin and based in Carthage (present-day Tunis in Tunisia), had incorporated a significant amount of European and non-European genes over the centuries. Consequently, their upper classes appeared very white, while their lower classes were of mixed origin.

The population of North Africa was commonly known as "Berbers," a name that still exists in some areas today. Genetic studies have shed light on the genetic composition of the Berber population, providing insight into the makeup of most of North Africa during the Roman empire. A 2012 study on the genetic history of the North African population indicated that they were of mixed origin. The study identified five distinct ancestries in North Africa: Maghrebi, European, Near Eastern, eastern, and western sub-Saharan Africa.[1] (The first four racial components can be traced back many thousands of years, while the sub-Saharan element in western North Africa dates back approximately 1200 years, coinciding with the period of the Islamic slave trade.)

As the history of ancient Egypt demonstrates,[2] most of the original white population in the eastern part of the North African region had been submerged by Semitic and African newcomers by at least 800 BC. The only significant alteration to this

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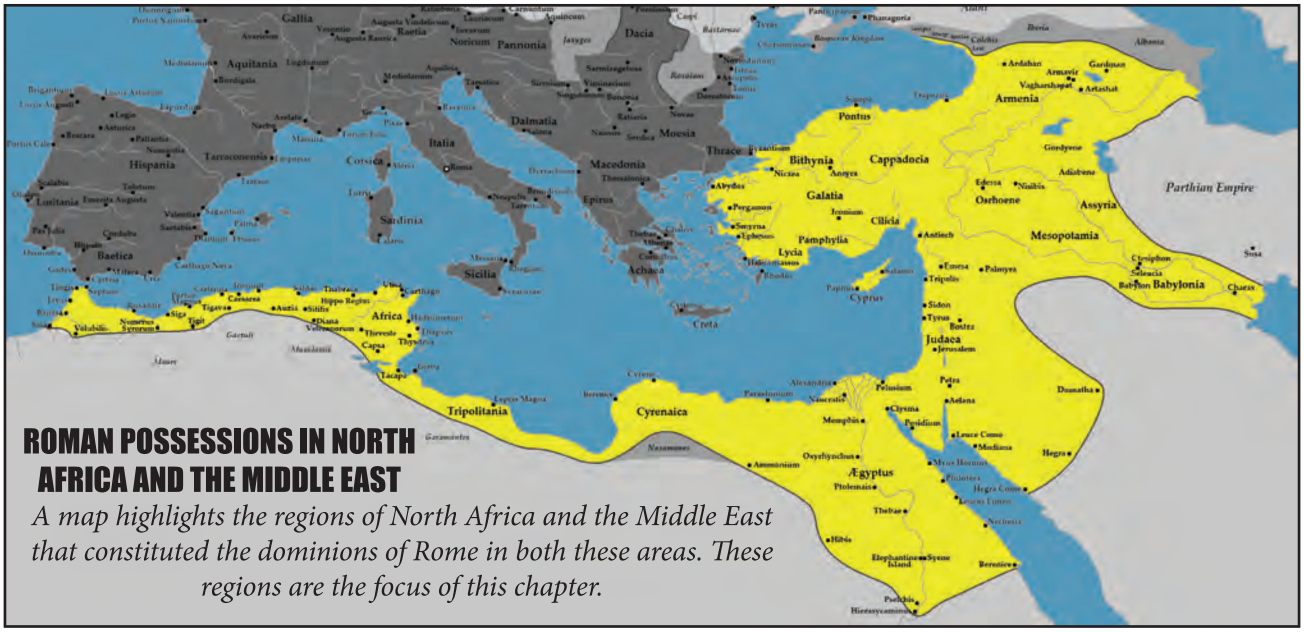
[1] "Genomic Ancestry of North Africans Supports Back-to-Africa Migrations," Henn, B. M. et al., *PLoS Genet.* 2012 Jan; 8(1): e1002397.

[2] See Chapter 10.


Gallia
Aquitania
Hispania
Lusitania
Baetica
Raetia
Noricum
Pannonia
Dacia
Italia
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicilia
Dalmatia
Moesia
Macedonia
Epirus
Thracia
Achaea
Creta
Pontus
Bithynia
Cappadocia
Galatia
Cilicia
Lycia
Pamphylia
Cyprus
Armenia
Osrhoene
Assyria
Mesopotamia
Babylonia
Parthian Empire
Judaea
Africa
Tripolitania
Cyrenaica
Ægyptus

ROMAN POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST

A map highlights the regions of North Africa and the Middle East that constituted the dominions of Rome in both these areas. These regions are the focus of this chapter.

CARTHAGO NOVA: ROMAN CARTHAGE

At the end of the Punic Wars, Rome destroyed ancient Carthage and built a new city over the ruins, naming it "New Carthage", or Carthago Nova. Above left: The ruins of the Roman Baths in Carthage; above right, the 139 AD Antonine Gate in the town of Sufetula, built on a Numidian settlement; and to the right, the 238 AD amphitheater of Thysdrus in the province of Africa (today El Jem, Tunisia).

demographic came with the Macedonian conquest of Egypt in 332 BC. From that time until the era of Julius Caesar, the ruling elite in Egypt was Macedonian. However, this ruling class did not have a substantial impact on the broader population's racial composition.

Roman Expansion into North Africa

The initial phase of Roman expansion into North Africa occurred after the Punic Wars with Carthage, which spanned from 264 to 146 BC. These wars played a significant role in the early history of Rome. (Refer to Chapter 13.) By the end of these wars, Rome annexed the territories surrounding the city of Carthage, situated close to the present-day city of Tunis in Tunisia. The Romans named this region *Africa Proconsularis.*

Numidia and the Jugurthine War (112–105 BC)

The subsequent North African region to come under Roman dominion was the kingdom of Numidia. Located in modern-day Algeria and parts of Tunisia, this state had risen as a significant power in the region. However, a civil war erupted in 118 BC due to a dispute between two claimants to the throne: Jugurtha and Adherbal.

Jugurtha emerged victorious from this conflict. Adherbal, who was the son of the preceding king and had been an ally of Rome, sought the Romans' aid. Responding swiftly, the Romans quelled the discord among the Berber tribes with a brief show of military prowess, subsequently dividing Numidia into two territories in 116 BC. Jugurtha was granted the western part, and Adherbal received the eastern territory, which included the affluent city of Cirta, which he designated as his capital.

Shortly after the Romans departed, leaving a modest contingent of their citizens in Cirta, Jugurtha resumed the civil war and besieged Adherbal's capital. Despite an agreement with Rome that prohibited harm to the Roman inhabitants, Jugurtha overran the city in 112 BC, slaughtering both its defenders and the Roman residents. This egregious act drew the Romans directly into the fray.

In the subsequent years, the Romans initiated numerous campaigns against Jugurtha but found it challenging to engage him in a decisive confrontation. The Numidian king adopted guerrilla warfare, evading direct combat and concentrating on ambushing Roman troops. The conflict concluded when the renowned Roman general Gaius Marius assumed command in 107 BC. Lucius Cornelius Sulla, in his capacity as Marius's quaestor, played an instrumental role by capturing Jugurtha's offspring and gathering intelligence on the Numidian monarch's strategies. In 105 BC, Jugurtha was betrayed by his father-in-law, King Bocchus I of Mauretania, and delivered to the Romans.

Numidia was not immediately annexed as a Roman province. Instead, the kingdom was entrusted to Gauda, an ally of Rome and Jugurtha's half-brother. Yet, the volatile nature of the racially diverse state remained a concern. When Numidian King Juba I declared allegiance to Pompey and the defeated faction in the Roman Civil War from 49 to 45 BC, the destiny of the state was determined.

Following Caesar's triumph in 46 BC at the Battle of Thapsus (located in today's Tunisia) over the forces led by Cato the Younger and King Juba I, Numidia was incorporated into Rome and became a Roman province.

ROMAN THAMUGADI IN PROVINCE OF NUMIDIA, 100 AD

The Roman city of Thamugadi (now called Timgad, in present-day Algeria) was founded in 100 AD by Emperor Trajan as a military colony. It is one of the best surviving examples of the grid plan used by Roman city planners. Timgad was burned to the ground by Arab tribes in the sixth century AD.

The Roman Annexation of Mauretania

Mauretania was the name given to an independent Berber kingdom that extended from present-day Algeria to Morocco at the time of Carthage's defeat by Rome. King Bocchus I of Mauretania aligned with Rome during the late Roman Republic and played a pivotal role in the Jugurthine War by delivering Jugurtha, the King of Numidia and an adversary of Rome, to the Romans.

The amicable relationship between Rome and Mauretania shifted in 40 AD when the reigning monarch of Mauretania, King Ptolemy, was assassinated. This event precipitated chaos, which threatened to infiltrate Roman provinces. In response, Emperor Claudius stepped in to establish dominance over Mauretania, annexing it around 44 AD. He partitioned the expansive kingdom into two provinces:

(a) *Mauretania Caesariensis,* centered in Caesarea (now known as Cherchell in Algeria). This province encompassed the eastern part of the previous kingdom, equivalent to the central coastal area of contemporary Algeria; and

(b) *Mauretania Tingitana,* spanning the western portion of the kingdom, inclusive of sections of modern-day Morocco, with its capital situated in Tingis (currently Tangier).

As the years progressed, these regions underwent Romanization, marked by the formation of colonies, roads, aqueducts, and other Roman infrastructural developments. The Berber populace increasingly assimilated into the Roman framework, enlisting in the military, engaging in commerce, and imbibing facets of Roman culture and way of life.

Roman Expansion into Egypt

The Ptolemaic dynasty of Egypt, instituted following Alexander the Great's conquests, governed Egypt from 332 BC onward. While the ruling echelon was of Macedonian descent, the majority of the populace represented the mixed racial group that had precipitated the cessation of the ancient Egyptian civilization.[3] Hence, the Ptolemaic Kingdom predominantly exercised authority in principal urban centers, confronting persistent internal conflicts.

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[3] See Chapter 10.

Egypt transitioned into a Roman province in 30 BC, subsequent to the overthrow of Queen Cleopatra VII and Mark Antony by Octavian (later known as Augustus) during the Battle of Actium in 31 BC. Egypt, also termed Aegyptus, was incorporated as a province under the direct governance of the emperor. Echoing the Ptolemaic period, Roman Egypt remained predominantly urban, while the countryside regions largely retained their original character.

Roman Expansion into Asia Minor

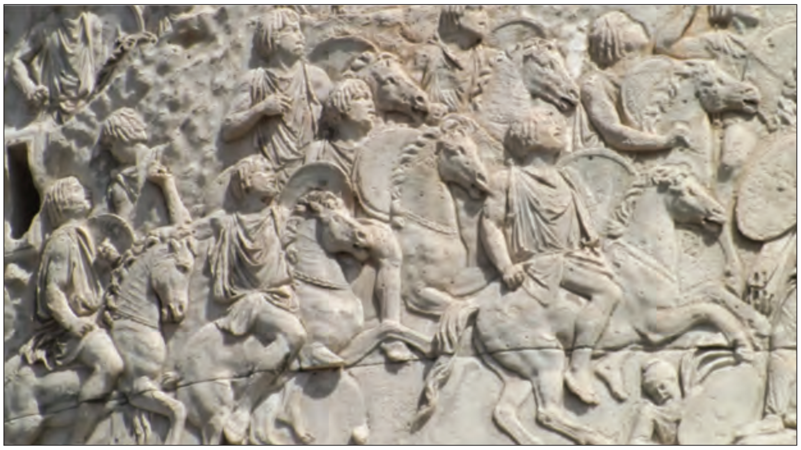
Roman expansion into Asia Minor (present-day Turkey) began with the Roman-Seleucid War, which occurred between 192 and 188 BC. The Seleucids, led by their King Antiochus III—a descendant of the Alexandrian general of the same name—sought to extend his kingdom's influence into Greece, viewing it as part of his inheritance from Alexander's era.

Antiochus III's forces entered Greece in 192 BC. Some Greeks in the central and western regions, who were part of an alliance known as the Aetolian League and opposed Roman influence, initially welcomed him. However, other Greek city-states, especially those that had recently been under Macedonian rule, promptly dispatched official emissaries to Rome, seeking protection against potential Seleucid incursions.

In response to these requests, Rome declared war on the Seleucid Empire in 192 BC. The subsequent year saw the two powers confront each other at the Battle of Thermopylae. The Romans, commanded by Manius Acilius Glabrio, delivered a resounding defeat to Antiochus III, pushing him out of Greece.

Following the eviction of the Seleucids from Greece, the Romans chose to engage them in Asia Minor, the core of the Seleucid Empire. In 190 BC, a considerable Roman fleet, supplemented by the formidable navy of the kingdom of Pergamon, a central Asian Minor ally, overpowered the Seleucid fleet at the Battle of Myonessus.

RACIALLY MIXED NORTH AFRICANS IN TRAJAN'S ARMY, 106 AD



Cavalrymen from the Roman province of Mauretania (present-day Algeria and Morocco) served in the army of Emperor Trajan during his war against the Dacians (101 to 106 AD). The Mauretanians, traditionally identified as "Moors" by classical historians, display the distinctive "corkscrew" hair characteristic of racially mixed individuals. Trajan's Column, scene LXIV.11-5, Rome.

Battle of Magnesia 190 BC

The climax of the war arrived in 190 BC at the Battle of Magnesia. The joint forces of Rome and its allies, inclusive of Eumenes II of Pergamon, squared off against Antiochus III and his troops. The Seleucids faced a devastating loss. Following this setback, Antiochus III had to negotiate with Rome. As stipulated in the ensuing peace agreement, the Treaty of Apamea, the Seleucids were mandated to pay a substantial indemnity, relinquish their territories in Asia Minor to the west of the Taurus Mountains, and constrain their military size. Rome subsequently apportioned these ceded regions among its allies, with Pergamon and Rhodes being primary beneficiaries.

The Roman-Seleucid War represented a turning point in the Hellenistic world. It signaled the waning of the Seleucid Empire as a dominant force and initiated Rome's ascent to supremacy in the eastern Mediterranean.

Central Asia Minor Comes under Roman Rule

In the central part of Anatolia, a branch of the Indo-European Celts, known as Galatians, established the Kingdom of Galatia during the 3rd century BC. The name "Galatia" translates as "land of the Gauls," and this kingdom was located in present-day central Turkey. (Turkey's present-day capital city, Ankara, was originally a major Galatian settlement.) Initially, the Galatians were allied with the Seleucids, but after being defeated at the Battle of Magnesia in 190 BC, they ceased their aggressive stance towards Rome and occasionally allied themselves with the Romans against local enemies.

By the late 1st century BC, the tribal governance of Galatia had evolved into a monarchy. Amyntas became the ruler around 36 BC and transformed Galatia into a significant regional kingdom. He cooperated closely with the Romans and expanded his territories.

Upon King Amyntas's death in 25 BC, there was no clear successor to the throne. Given the absence of a stable succession and the previous king's close ties with Rome, Octavian Augustus decided to annex Galatia directly into the Roman Empire. The region was organized as a province, and it soon became an integral part of the empire.

Next to be added to the Roman acquisitions was the Kingdom of Pergamon in western Anatolia, which had long been a key ally of Rome in the region. When its last king, Attalus III, died in 133 BC, he bequeathed his kingdom to Rome.

Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus, more commonly known as Pompey or Pompey the Great, was commissioned by the Roman Senate in 67 BC to address the significant issue of pirates operating from their bases in Cilicia (a region in southeastern Anatolia). These pirates had raided the port of Ostia, near Rome, and disrupted Rome's grain supply.

Armed with a substantial military force, Pompey rid the Mediterranean of pirates, took possession of Cilicia, and formally annexed it as a Roman province.

Mithridatic Wars (88–63 BC)

The Kingdom of Pontus, originating from Persian descent and thus of mixed racial origins, was situated in the northern part of Anatolia along the Black Sea coast. Its king, Mithridates VI, aimed to expand his influence in Asia Minor, viewing the Romans as obstacles to his objectives.

Seizing an opportunity during a temporary Roman entanglement in a conflict in Italy, known as the Social War,[4] and capitalizing on the discontent of Greek cities in Asia Minor towards Roman dominance, Mithridates masterminded a mass massacre of Roman settlers across Asia Minor. Estimates of the death toll range from 80,000 to 100,000.

The Roman general, Sulla, was sent to challenge Mithridates. Despite early setbacks, Sulla successfully defeated Mithridates' forces in Greece and proceeded to Asia Minor. The war concluded with the 85 BC Peace of Dardanos, under which Mithridates relinquished his conquests but retained his rule over Pontus.

Soon after the end of the First Mithradatic War, tensions arose anew. As Mithridates rebuilt his army, capitalizing yet again on Rome's internal struggles, the Roman General Lucius Licinius Murena invaded Mithradatic territories in 83 BC. This war saw no decisive victories and eventually faded away without a formal treaty.

In 73 BC, Mithridates, having bolstered his power over the years, initiated an invasion of the Roman province of Bithynia. The Roman General Lucullus led a robust campaign against Mithridates, repelling the invasion and even chasing the retreating Mithradatic king into Armenia, where he sought shelter with his son-in-law, King Tigranes.

General Pompey subsequently took command of the Roman forces, venturing into Armenia and driving both Mithridates and Tigranes towards the Crimea. In 63 BC, Mithridates took his own life, concluding the prolonged conflict between Rome and Pontus.

Following this, Pompey founded the Roman province of Pontus and restructured the entire eastern Mediterranean into distinct Roman provinces, laying down a structure in Anatolia that would endure for centuries.

Roman Centers in Asia Minor

The Roman Empire established many major centers in Asia Minor. Some were built upon Classical Greek cities, but each became significant in its own right under Roman rule. The most notable of these centers included:

- Ephesus (in the region of Ionia): Serving as the provincial capital of Asia, Ephesus functioned as an administrative center. It showcased remarkable Roman constructions such as the Library of Celsus and a vast theater with a seating capacity of 25,000 spectators.

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[4] A conflict between the city of Rome and its neighboring cities over their unequal status as Roman dominions that ended with the granting of full Roman citizenship to all inhabitants of the Italian peninsula south of the Po River.

EPHESUS: FAMOUS ROMAN CENTER IN ASIA MINOR

The city of Ephesus was originally founded by the ancient Greeks in the 10th century BC but came under Roman control by the 2nd century BC. It became one of the largest cities in the Mediterranean world and contained many magnificent buildings, including the Library of Celsus (right) built in honor of the Roman Senator Tiberius Julius Celsus Polemaeanus by his son, Gaius Julius Aquila. Construction began in 117 AD and was completed in 120 AD. Above: The Amphitheater in Ephesus, started in the 3rd century BC, but built in its current format by the Romans in the 1st century AD. It had a capacity of around 25,000 spectators, and was most famously the site of a riotous public meeting protesting against the activities of the Christian Apostle Paul of Tarsus, as related in the biblical Book of Acts.

- Pergamum (or Pergamon): Located in the region of Mysia, Pergamum was recognized for its acropolis and library.
- Smyrna (present-day İzmir in Turkey): Smyrna acted as a principal port city and was a competitor to Ephesus.
- Antioch of Pisidia: Distinct from Antioch in Syria, this city stood as an essential Roman colony.
- Tarsus: Situated in Cilicia, Tarsus became most famous as the birthplace of the Jew Saul, who later gained prominence as the Christian Apostle "Paul of Tarsus."
- Hierapolis: Positioned in Phrygia near the present-day location of Pamukkale, Hierapolis was renowned for its hot springs and as a hub of pagan cults.
- Laodicea on the Lycus: A primary trade city.
- Aphrodisias: Located in Caria, Aphrodisias was dedicated to the goddess Aphrodite and served as a center for her veneration. Moreover, it was famed for its school of sculpture.
- Nicaea (modern-day Iznik): Nestled in Bithynia, Nicaea was integral to early Christian history. It hosted the First Council of Nicaea in 325 CE, leading to the formulation of the Nicene Creed.
- Side: Situated in Pamphylia, Side was an ancient harbor city distinguished for its extensive Roman structures such as theaters, temples, and other grand public edifices.
- Ancyra (modern-day Ankara): Serving as the capital of the Roman province of Galatia, it evolved into a pivotal administrative hub.

Racial Implications of Occupying Asia Minor

The extent of Roman cities in Asia Minor underscored an important factor: the blending of various cultures in the region. By the time of the Persian Empire, the region had largely been of mixed racial origin—namely old European, Indo-European, Semitic, and West Asian. The arrival of Roman overseers further amplified this diverse population.

Consequently, Asia Minor, in conjunction with the Middle East, emerged as one of the primary sources of non-European migration to Rome. This contributed to the dilution of the original Roman populace and eventually to the decline, or "fall," of Roman civilization.

This demographic shift was reflected in the genetic makeup of Rome during the Empire, which will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

Roman Expansion into the Middle East

The region currently identified as Syria was previously under the Seleucid Empire. It had been of

GERASA, ROMAN PROVINCE OF ARABIA PERTRAEA, 106 AD

*The city of Gerasa, originally established by Alexander the Great, was annexed to Rome by Pompey in 63 BC and then added to their Province of Arabia Petraea in 106 AD. Now called Jerash, the city is located in present-day Jordan. Gerasa was a favorite of Emperor Hadrian, who visited the city in AD 129. The Jewish-Roman historian Josephus stated that the city was mainly inhabited by "Syrians" (*The Jewish War, *2.18.1).*

Above left: The Arch of Hadrian in Gerasa was built to honor the the emperor's visit to the city in 129 AD.
Above right: The Temple of Artemis in Gerasa, dating from 150 AD.

The Oval Plaza in Gerasa, dating from around 140 AD.

mixed racial origin even before the era of Alexander.

Syria was the first significant region to be assimilated into the Roman dominions, a development that transpired after the Seleucid King Antiochus III was defeated by the Romans at the Battle of Magnesia in 190 BC.

Upon concluding his campaign against the pirates of Cilicia, Roman General Pompey shifted his focus to Syria. In 64 BC, Pompey incorporated the remnants of the Seleucid Empire, including Syria, into the Roman Empire. The last Seleucid king, Antiochus XIII, was dethroned, and Syria was established as a Roman province, acting as a buffer against the eastern Parthian Empire.

Over time, Syria became the birthplace of at least three Roman emperors: Elagabalus (who ruled from 218 to 222 AD), born in Emesa (present-day Homs, Syria); Severus Alexander (who ruled from 222 to 235 AD), Elagabalus's cousin, also born in Emesa; and Philip the Arab (Marcus Julius Philippus, who reigned from 244 to 249 AD), born in the town of Shahba, south of Damascus. These emperors illustrate the diverse origins of Roman rulers during the empire's later periods.

Judea Before the Roman Era

The next Roman expansion into the Middle East involved the annexation of Judea, a development that would ultimately have a profound impact on world history.

The term "Judeans" (from the Latin "Iudaei" or Greek "Ioudaioi") referred specifically to the inhabitants of Judea, the southern part of what is today the state of Israel. Racially speaking, they were among the many Semitic tribes in the Middle East but had differentiated themselves by creating a distinct religion based on racial lineage.

Specifically, one had to be born to a Jewish mother to be considered a Jew, a practice intended to preserve the matrilineal lines of descent within the original tribe members.

Even at this early stage in history, Jewish populations were significant, allowing them to endure a tumultuous past that included being taken into captivity in Babylon by another Semitic tribe, the Chaldeans.[5] By the time of the era of Alexander the Great, Judea had fallen during his extensive campaigns in the Middle East. After his death, the region became part of the Seleucid Empire.

Under the rule of the Seleucid King Antiochus IV Epiphanes, the empire sought to suppress the Jewish religion by imposing Hellenistic culture and religion on Judea. This incited what is now known as the Maccabean Revolt of 167–160 BC.

Led by Judas Maccabeus, this revolt manifested as fierce resistance to the Seleucid's Hellenizing policies, culminating in the Seleucids' expulsion from Judea.

Subsequently, Judea achieved independence under the Hasmonean dynasty, named after Hashmon, an ancestor of the Maccabee family. This period of Jewish autonomy saw numerous internal divisions and conflicts. The period also witnessed the forced conversion of a neighboring Semitic tribe, the Idumeans, to Judaism, a decision that deeply angered many of Judea's religious leaders.

When Hasmonean princes Hyrcanus II and Aristobulus II—siblings and children of Hasmonean Queen Salome Alexandra—initiated a civil war over succession following her death, the ensuing chaos attracted Pompey's attention, who was in the process of annexing nearby Syria.

Having received requests for assistance from both brothers, Pompey aligned with Hyrcanus II. He dispatched a Roman military force to Judea, successfully seizing Jerusalem from Aristobulus II. Although Hyrcanus II was reinstated as High Priest, he was not crowned king. Consequently, Judea became a client state, with portions of its territory incorporated into the Roman province of Syria.

"PHILIP THE ARAB": SYRIAN-BORN ROMAN EMPEROR 244 – 49 AD

IMP M IVL PHILIPPVS AVG

A coin depicting Marcus Julius Philippus, Roman Emperor who reigned from 244 to 249 AD. He was born in 204 AD in the town of Philippopolis, now known as Shahba, in present-day Syria. Hence, he is commonly referred to as "Philip the Arab."

Meanwhile, one of Hyrcanus II's most senior advisors, Antipater (an Idumean, and therefore known to history as "Antipater the Idumean"), had developed a close personal relationship with many senior Romans. When Julius Caesar was in Egypt during his renowned affair with Cleopatra, Antipater assisted him by sending troops. Grateful for his support, Caesar rewarded Antipater by granting him Roman citizenship and appointing him as the procurator (or administrator) of Judea in 47 BCE.

As a consequence of his new position, Antipater appointed his sons to significant roles: Phasael became governor of Jerusalem, and Herod (the future Herod the Great) was appointed governor of Galilee.

In 40 BC, the Parthian Empire invaded Judea, supported by the followers of the deposed Aristobulus II and his son Antigonus. Hyrcanus II was deposed and taken to Parthia as a captive. The Parthians installed Antigonus as king and high priest of Judea. Herod, who was in Jerusalem at the time, managed to evade the Parthian advance. He first

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[5] See Chapter 9.

CAESAREA MARITIMA, JUDEA, 15 BC

An aerial view showcases the ruins of Caesarea Maritima, located on the northern coast of present-day Israel. King Herod the Great expanded the city between 22 and 10 BC and renamed it Caesarea in honor of his patron, the Roman Emperor Octavian Augustus. Herod commissioned the construction of a deep-sea harbor, an aqueduct, a hippodrome, and a theater, some of which can be seen in this picture. After the death of Herod in 4 BC, Caesarea became the provincial capital of the Roman province of Judaea.

fled to Masada, a fortress in the Judean desert, and then to Petra in Nabatea. However, he initially received no aid there. Eventually, Herod journeyed to Rome.

Roman Senate Declares Herod "King of the Jews"

In Rome, Herod secured the support of key Roman figures, including Mark Antony and Octavian. Recognizing the potential of a loyal client king in Judea, the Roman Senate declared Herod as "King of the Jews" in 40 BC.

With significant Roman military assistance, Herod returned to Judea to reclaim his throne. His campaign targeted not only Antigonus and his Jewish allies but also the invading Parthian forces. After several military confrontations and an extended siege, Herod seized Jerusalem in 37 BC. Antigonus was captured by Herod's Roman allies and transported to Antioch.

The Parthians, confronted with new Roman campaigns and internal strife, were forced to withdraw from the territories they had taken, including Judea. With the Parthians ousted and the Hasmonean adversary Antigonus removed, Herod ruled as King of Judea from 37 to 4 BCE. His reign featured extensive building endeavors, including the refurbishment of the Second Temple (commonly called Herod's Temple) and the establishment of the fortress of Masada and the port city of Caesarea Maritima.

Momentous Event: Judea Annexed by Rome

Upon Herod's death in 4 BC, his kingdom was divided among his sons. Archelaus received Judea, Idumea, and Samaria; Herod Antipas was given Galilee and Perea; and Philip inherited the northeastern territories.

Due to mismanagement and increasing unpopularity, Archelaus was deposed by the Romans in 6 AD. His territories (Judea, Samaria, and Idumea) were directly annexed into the Roman Empire as the province of Judaea. It was to be governed by a Roman prefect (later procurator). This marked the formal annexation of the heartland of the Jewish world into the Roman Empire.

The Roman annexation of Judea had profound implications for the history of the region and the broader world. It laid the foundation for centuries of Jewish-Roman interactions, led to the diaspora of Jews worldwide, and was directly responsible for the emergence and subsequent spread of an offshoot Jewish sect that became Christianity.

The First Roman-Jewish War (66–73 AD)

In 66 AD, a dispute over money and religious matters in the city of Caesarea escalated into a full-scale rebellion. The uprising began with the Jews successfully resisting Roman soldiers, resulting in the Romans being expelled from Jerusalem. The rebels also defeated the Roman legion Legio XII Fulminata, which attempted to suppress the rebellion in its early stages.

Recognizing the gravity of the revolt, Rome sent General Vespasian and his son Titus with a substantial military force to quash the rebellion. Over the next few years, Vespasian undertook a methodical campaign across Judea, seizing key towns and fortresses.

In 70 AD, after Vespasian ascended to the role of Emperor, his son Titus laid siege to Jerusalem. The city, already fractured by internal factional conflicts, experienced severe conditions. After an extended siege, the Romans captured the city. The Second Temple, also known as Herod's Temple, was destroyed during the Roman onslaught, leaving only a section now referred to as the "Wailing Wall."

Romans Build Temple to Jupiter in Jerusalem

The Romans initiated a transformation of Jerusalem into a Roman colony. This colony, named Aelia Capitolina—a combination of Emperor Hadrian's family name, Aelius, and "Capitolina" referring to the Roman Capitoline triad of Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva—was established around 130-135 AD. The Romans built new structures, temples (including a temple to Jupiter on the Temple Mount), and streets, and repopulated the city with a primarily non-Jewish populace.

The Roman occupation accelerated the process historically referred to as the Jewish Diaspora. This phenomenon resulted in Jews leaving Judea and settling in various regions to the east, west, and north of their homeland. (The repercussions of this process will be discussed in greater detail in another volume of this work.)

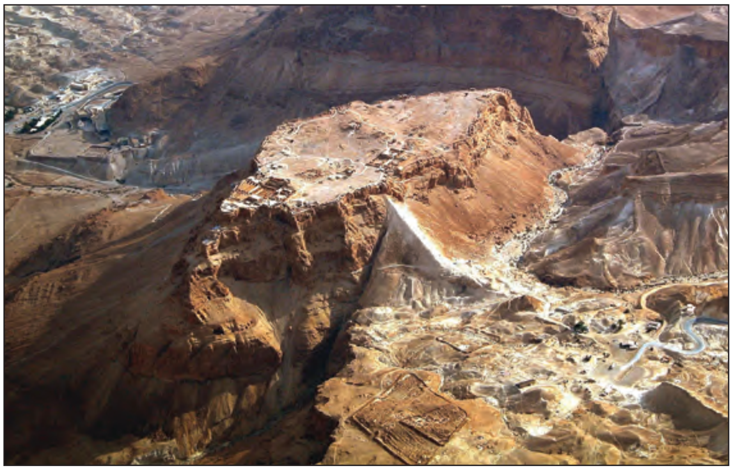
The Second Roman-Jewish War 115–117 AD

The Jewish Diaspora dispersed Jews throughout the Middle East, reaching as far as Mesopotamia, extending into Egypt, Cyrenaica (modern-day Libya), Anatolia, and even Cyprus. As Jewish communities grew in these regions, so did resentment against the Romans. In 115 AD, Jewish uprisings against the Romans erupted in these areas. These conflicts are collectively termed the Kitos War, named after a misinterpretation of the name of one of the Roman commanders, General Lusius Quietus, who played a significant role in quelling the revolts. The Jewish uprising in Cyprus was notably ferocious.

Under the leadership of Artemion, Jewish rebels killed 240,000 Greeks, prompting harsh Roman retaliation. After quashing the rebellion, the Romans prohibited Jews from residing on the island.

The Jewish revolt in Cyrenaica, under the leadership of a revolutionary named Lukuas or Andreas, was notably violent. Thousands of non-Jews were slaughtered, and several Roman settlements, including the provincial capital Oea (modern-day Tripoli), were destroyed. The Romans quickly sent reinforcements to the region and eventually defeated the Jews.

ROMAN SIEGE OF MASADA ENDS ZEALOT RESISTANCE, 73 AD



The 73 AD Roman siege of the mountaintop fortress Masada in the Judean Desert marked the end of the First Roman-Jewish War. The fortress was held by a group of Jewish zealots known as the Sicarii, famous for their tactic of covert assassinations. To overcome the natural defenses, the Romans built an enormous ramp up the side of the mountain (visible in this image) which allowed them to use a battering ram to breach the walls. As the Romans were about to breach the fortress, the defenders committed mass suicide. Out of 1,000 Jews on the mountaintop, only two women and five children survived by hiding in the cisterns, and they recounted the events to the Romans.

In Egypt, the Jewish revolt centered around Alexandria. The details of this rebellion are not well-documented, but the Roman response was severe. Alexandria had become the largest Jewish city outside of Judea. During the city's recapture by Roman forces, the great synagogue was destroyed.

The rebellion in Alexandria and the broader Kitos War underscored the deep tensions between the Jews and the Romans. These events directly led to the outbreak of the Bar Kokhba Revolt just a few years later.

The Third Roman-Jewish War 132–136 AD

In Judea, dissatisfaction with the Romans intensified as news of the suppression of Jewish uprisings across the eastern Mediterranean spread. In 132 AD, a Jew named Simon was officially declared the Jewish messiah by one of the most senior rabbis. He was given the name "Bar Kokhba" (meaning ""Son of the Star" in Aramaic) and became the leader of the rebellion that would be known as the Bar Kokhba Revolt. Catching the Romans off guard, the Bar Kokhba forces took control of substantial portions

ROMANS PARADE SPOILS OF WAR FROM JERUSALEM, 70 AD

The interior panel from the Arch of Titus in the Roman Forum depicts part of the victory procession through the streets of Rome to commemorate the Roman victory over the Jews in 70 AD. The menorah, taken from the Temple in Jerusalem, signifies a building that was almost completely destroyed during the siege of the city.

of Judea and proclaimed independence. The reigning Roman Emperor Hadrian summoned his finest generals and legions from neighboring regions and as distant as the Danube area to quell the uprising.

The Romans employed a scorched-earth strategy. Instead of engaging in large, pitched battles, they concentrated on methodically recapturing fortresses, towns, and villages one by one, devastating the countryside in the process. The climax of the revolt was the siege of Betar, Bar Kokhba's fortress, in 135 AD. Once Betar was captured and Bar Kokhba was killed, resistance largely ceased.

Furious at the continuous Jewish uprisings, the Romans inflicted heavy casualties on the Jews. Some sources claim that hundreds of thousands were killed, with many more sold into slavery or exiled.

Jews Banned from Jerusalem

Hadrian also issued a decree prohibiting Jews from residing in or entering the city of Jerusalem, except on a specified day of mourning commemorating the destruction of both the First and Second Temples. On this day alone, Jews were permitted to approach and mourn at the ruins of the Temple (hence the "wailing" term associated with the ruins to this day).

Hadrian also banned circumcision, a fundamental rite in Judaism.[6] The province of Judea was renamed Syria Palaestina, in order to distance it even more from the Jews.

The real significance of the widespread nature of the Jewish revolts, and the presence of Jews across the Empire is that these events illustrate how the annexation of the Middle East resulted in the mass migration of non-Romans into Rome. By this time already, there were significant Jewish populations throughout Anatolia, in Rome, and in Western Europe.

Nabatean Kingdom Annexed in 106 AD

Another Semitic tribe, the Nabateans, settled in a region that encompasses what is today the Sinai Peninsula, northwestern Saudi Arabia, southern Israel and Palestine, and parts of Jordan.

When Pompey the Great and a Roman army arrived in the region in 62 BC, the Nabateans offered brief resistance. Deciding that the effort to conquer them would not yield sufficient benefits, Pompey turned his attention to more pressing matters.

The Roman annexation of Syria and then Judea greatly influenced the Nabateans, who subsequently became heavily Romanized in various aspects of their culture and administration.

In 106 AD, possibly due to a succession crisis in the Nabatean Kingdom, Emperor Trajan ordered its annexation. The region was then renamed *Arabia Petraea* after its former capital, the city of Petra.

Under Roman rule, the city of Petra thrived. It was during this period that many of the city's renowned structures were erected.

However, the province's capital was relocated to Bostra (modern-day Busra al-Sham in Syria), which also served as the headquarters for the Roman legions stationed there.

The vast territory incorporated into the Roman Empire—extending into the northern part of the Saudi Arabian peninsula—significantly increased the non-European population of the Empire.

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[6] *Historia Augusta*, "Life of Hadrian" 14, 2.

The Annexation of Mesopotamia

Mesopotamia, situated in present-day Iraq, marked the easternmost boundary of the Roman Empire. By the time the Romans began to show interest in Mesopotamia, it was under the control of the Parthian Empire, which would become one of Rome's most formidable rivals in the East.

The most successful Roman foray into Mesopotamia occurred under Emperor Trajan.

In 114 AD, Trajan also annexed Armenia, converting it into a Roman province. He then advanced down the Tigris, capturing the major cities of Babylon, Ctesiphon, and Seleucia in 116 AD. However, this annexation was short-lived. Widespread rebellions and logistical challenges made it difficult to maintain these territories.

Recognizing the challenges of controlling regions so distant from Rome, Trajan's successor, Hadrian, adopted a policy of strategic withdrawal. He gave up the territories in Mesopotamia that Trajan had acquired, prioritizing defensible borders instead.

Emperor Septimius Severus, being of Syrian birth, held a personal interest in the region. He once again invaded Mesopotamia, taking Ctesiphon in 198–199 AD. He restructured the eastern frontier, forming the province of Mesopotamia, which encompassed parts of what is now northern Iraq and eastern Syria.

Nonwhite Majorities in All Eastern Conquests

These extensive annexations, which extended the borders of Rome to the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in the east and to the northern part of Saudi Arabia in the south, had one shared characteristic: they were predominantly inhabited by millions nonwhite, non-European peoples.

This substantial inclusion, all occurring within about 200 years, profoundly changed the demographic of the entire Roman Empire.

It was demographically unfeasible for the Romans alone to provide the manpower necessary to administer such a vast area. Consequently, they needed to Romanize the indigenous population and enlist soldiers and craftsmen from among them. Most often, only the highest-ranking civil servants in the Roman provinces were initially from Rome, and frequently, even they were replaced over time by local individuals.

FIRST ROMAN COIN STRUCK AT "AELIA CAPITOLINA," 136 AD

The first Roman coin was struck at Aelia Capitolina, the name given to the city of Jerusalem after the Jewish defeat in the Third Roman-Jewish War (132–136 AD). Struck in 136 AD, the writing on the coin reads: Imp[eratori] Caes[ari] Traiano Hadriano Avg[vsto] P[atri] P[atriae] ("To the Emperor Caesar Trajan Hadrian Augustus, Father of the Nation.")

212 AD: Caracalla Grants Roman Citizenship to Millions of Mixed-Race Middle Easterners

Roman Emperor Caracalla, who ruled from 198 to 217 AD, was born to a father from Cyrenaica (present-day Libya) and a mother from Emesa (current-day Homs in Syria). He is primarily recognized for the *Constitutio Antoniniana.* Also known as the "Edict of Caracalla" or the "Antonine Constitution," this 212 AD decree proclaimed that all free men within the Roman Empire were granted Roman citizenship, and all free women in the empire were given the same legal status as Roman women. Until this point, Roman citizenship had been a coveted distinction. Although it had been extended on several occasions, it remained restricted to a fraction of the empire's inhabitants.

The edict resulted in two primary outcomes: firstly, it greatly expedited the Romanization of the provinces. Accompanying citizenship were specific rights, duties, and a collective identity, which further amalgamated diverse groups into the Roman fold.

Secondly, the significant presence of Arabic and mixed-race individuals in the Middle East and North Africa meant they could now elect senators to the Roman senate in Rome.

Due to their sheer numbers, genuine Romans soon constituted a minority of senators in the empire's capital. The Romans had been replaced.

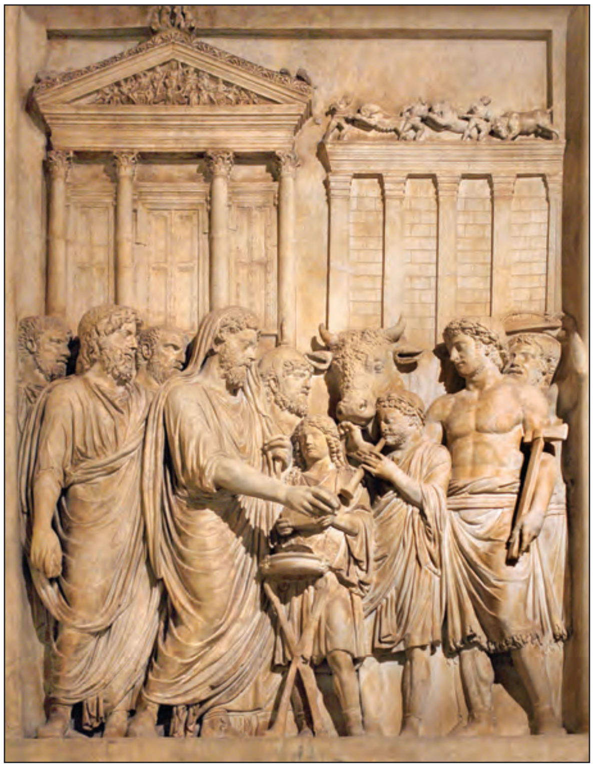
Chapter 20: In Hoc Signo Vinces—Rome and Christianity

The conversion of the Roman Empire to Christianity was a pivotal event in the history of the empire and of Europe. An understanding of the religion's origins and precisely how and why it came to dominate the Roman Empire is crucial to comprehending the events that led to the transformation of Christianity from a Judaic offspring cult into the predominant religion of Europe.

Pontifex Maximus: An Important Position

Religion in pre-Christian Roman times was characterized by significant diversity. There was not a single theme in the worship of any particular god or group of gods; it was predominantly a collection of local beliefs that varied immensely from one region to another.

MARCUS AURELIUS AS PONTIFEX MAXIMUS



Emperor Marcus Aurelius (161–180 AD), wearing the traditional shawl of the office, officiates as Pontifex Maximus over a sacrifice in gratitude for his success against the Germanic tribes. In the background is the only portrayal of the Temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill in existence. (Arch of Marcus Aurelius, Capitoline Museum, Rome.)

Over time, the office of the Pontifex Maximus, or "Great Pontiff", came into existence. The Pontifex Maximus had multiple religious duties: overseeing the Roman calendar, maintaining the annals of Roman history, officiating at marriages, and supervising specific public religious ceremonies. He also had jurisdiction over the Vestal Virgins, priestesses of Vesta, who maintained the sacred flame in the Temple of Vesta in the Roman Forum.

Although the role was religious, it was inextricably linked with Roman politics. By the late Republic, the title of Pontifex Maximus was desired by many of Rome's leading politicians. Julius Caesar notably secured the position in 63 BC, enhancing his political influence and prestige. Octavian Augustus assumed the title of Pontifex Maximus, establishing it as one of the numerous titles that Roman emperors would adopt.

This action further solidified the bond between religious and political power in the Roman Empire. From this juncture, the title became less of an active religious role and more a symbol of the emperor's stature as both a political and religious authority.

This had a profound influence on the Empire when Christianity emerged as the predominant religion. The emperor's position as the chief priest of the unofficial state religion or religions would have significant repercussions. Often, a cult's popularity would rise or decline based solely on the emperor's interest. A notable instance was when the Macedonian queen of Egypt, Cleopatra, visited Rome. The presence of someone perceived to be an Egyptian queen (even though she was Macedonian, not Egyptian) led to a substantial resurgence in the ancient Egyptian cult of Isis, which later waned.

Essene Jewish Origin of Christianity

Christianity originated as a subsect of Judaism in the Roman province of Judea. The Jews, a significant tribe originating from the Semitic heartland of Saudi Arabia, had established a unique racially-based religion which restricted membership by birth (specifically through a Jewish mother), and which limited their god to themselves alone. This was a highly ethno-centric religion; the Jewish deity considered the Jews as above all other races, or “chosen.”[1]

Sometime late in the 3rd century BC, a minor division occurred in Judaism, the exact origins of which remain unknown. The outcome of this division was the formation of what became known as the “Essenes,” who embraced a set of beliefs slightly divergent from mainstream Judaism. The most notable of these differences was the assertion that the Jewish “messiah” was either imminent or had already arrived and was the Essene leader.

Essene Dead Sea Scrolls Show Similarities with Christian Precepts

The existence of the Essenes gained prominence after the discovery of many of their sacred texts in caves around the Dead Sea. These are the renowned “Dead Sea Scrolls,” which include fragments of what became the Old Testament and guidelines that governed the Essene sect.

It is evident from Essene beliefs that their worldview laid the groundwork for the emergence of Christianity. Essene rituals and Christianity share many similarities. The Dead Sea Scrolls describe a meal of bread and wine ordered by the messiah, and there are passages in the Christian New Testament that mirror Essene texts.

For example, Luke 1:31–35, which says, “And now you will conceive in your womb and bear a son, and you will name him Jesus. He will be great and will be called the son of the Most High...the son of God,” echoes the text from the 4Q246 Dead Sea Scroll.[2]

Similarly, John 8:12’s “I am the light of the world; he who follows me will not walk in darkness,” is reminiscent of a phrase in the Essenes’ “Rule of the Community” (also known as the “Manual of Discipline”), which states, “All the children of righteousness are ruled by the Prince of Light and walk in the ways of light, but all the children of falsehood are ruled by the Angel of Darkness and walk in the ways of darkness.”[3]

DEAD SEA SCROLLS: THEOLOGICAL ORIGIN OF CHRISTIANITY

A portion of the “Community Rule Scroll” from the Dead Sea Scrolls. The “Community Rule” contains the doctrines and practices of the Essenes, many of which are nearly identical to the founding precepts of Christianity. (Shrine of the Book Museum, Jerusalem, Israel.)

There are other parallels, such as voluntary celibacy, a prohibition on divorce, a ritual of water immersion (baptism), and notably, a messiah, whom they named the “Teacher of Righteousness.” They believed he was murdered and subsequently resurrected.[4]

These beliefs did not vanish with the disappearance of the Essenes following the conclusion of the First Roman-Jewish War but were incorporated into Christian theology.

Jesus Christ: No Contemporaneous Evidence

The Essene texts referring to a “Teacher of Righteousness” did not claim that he was the son of God, but the parallels with Christian theology are too evident to overlook. This is particularly relevant considering that there are no external or con-

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[1] God’s promise to the Jews in the Book of Exodus 19:5–6: “Out of all nations, you will be my treasured possession. Although the whole earth is mine, you will be for me a kingdom of priests and a holy nation.”

[2] Most of the Dead Sea Scrolls are kept at the Shrine of the Book Museum, Jerusalem, Israel.

[3] “Rule of the Community, 3.” Shrine of the Book Museum, Jerusalem, Israel.

[4] Texts 1QpHab and 4Q285 of the Dead Sea Scrolls, Shrine of the Book Museum, Jerusalem, Israel.

"JOSEPHUS BUST," ROME, 50 AD

A marble bust dating from the 1st century BC shows a standard Jewish physiognomy, and dubbed the "Josephus bust." There is no hard evidence to prove that this truly represents Josephus, other than a claim by the 3rd century AD Christian historian Eusebius that Josephus was "popular in Rome" and that a statue was dedicated to him. Even if the bust is not of Josephus, it still serves as a demonstration of how Jews had started to settle in Rome by that period. (Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen, Denmark.)

temporaneous sources confirming the existence of Jesus Christ. Not a single Roman, Jewish,[5] or other writer mentions him.

Consequently, the only sources detailing his life are the books of the New Testament, all of which date to around 70 or 80 AD, decades after Christ was purportedly executed.[6]

The Romanized Jewish historian Josephus—a former Jewish leader in the rebellion of 70 AD who was "converted" by the Romans and wrote a history of the Jews in 94 AD—is the closest any Roman records get to mentioning Jesus.[7] However, this reference appears to be a later addition by Christian scribes.[8]

All other Roman references to Jesus date back to a century after Jesus was believed to have lived and are grounded in the activities of Christian advocates of that later period.

The absence of authoritative external sources means that all early Christian history relies primarily on the Bible's own accounts. This reliance poses challenges, not only because of the miraculous claims made in the Bible,[9] but also due to the lack of any external validation.

The First Christians Were Jews, the Bible Says

Despite the challenges in verifying the early biblical claims, it is evident that by the early 1st century AD, Christianity had spread to many parts of the eastern Roman Empire, primarily in the largely Semitic or mixed-race regions. This development was anticipated, as the New Testament quotes Jesus Christ as specifically stating that he was sent only to the "lost sheep of the House of Israel"[10] and that the Jews should not offer the new religion as "crumbs" to non-Jewish "dogs."[11]

The Book of Acts, specifically Acts 10 and 11, recounts how a significant number of the first Jewish Christians vehemently opposed non-Jews becoming Christians. According to this biblical text, a Roman centurion named Cornelius expressed his desire to become a Christian,[12] but upon learning of this, a heated debate arose among the Jewish Christians about whether they should admit the non-Jew into their religion.

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[5] The Babylonian Talmud, compiled from the 1st to the 6th century AD, contains a few highly derogatory references to a character named "Yeshu." However, this name was not uncommon in ancient Judea, and there is no definitive evidence to suggest it refers to "Jesus of Nazareth."

[6] Interestingly, there is a dismissive mention of Pontius Pilate, the procurator of Judea who is supposed to have presided at the trial of Jesus, in the work *Legatio ad Gaium,* ("On the Embassy to Gaius"), written by the Hellenistic Jewish philosopher, Philo of Alexandria, c. 20 BC–50 AD. This work describes some of Pilate's actions as governor of Judaea, emphasizing instances where he antagonized the Jewish population, but it makes no mention of Jesus.

[7] *Antiquities of the Jews,* "Testimonium Flavianum," 18.63–64. Josephus, 94 AD.

[8] Indications that this is a later addition to Josephus's work include noticeable language and style differences in the sentences surrounding the Jesus reference; the fact that all contemporary references to Josephus's work, such as that by the early Christian apologist Origen (c. 185–c. 253 AD), do not mention it; the first appearance of this reference in a copy of Josephus's work in the early 4th century AD; and the section's praise of Jesus in Christian tones, which would be unexpected for a Jew like Josephus.

[9] These miraculous claims encompass stories like Noah's Ark, chariots of fire taking prophets to heaven, God communicating through a burning bush, manna descending from heaven, Jesus's virgin birth, walking on water, and many other tales whose authenticity is, at the very least, highly questionable, if not utterly implausible.

[10] Matthew 15, 24: "But he answered and said, I am not sent but unto the lost sheep of the house of Israel."

[11] Matthew 15, 26: "It is not appropriate to take the children's [the children of Israel] bread and to cast it to dogs."

The cause for the disagreement among these first Jewish Christians was that they did not view themselves as founders of a new religion but as continuing the traditions of Judaism.

The Bible asserts that the debate was resolved after one of the original twelve disciples, Simon Peter, had a vision in which God informed him it was permissible to eat meat considered "unclean." This dream was interpreted by Simon Peter to signify that although non-Jews were deemed "unclean," God had sanctioned their conversion to Christianity.[13]

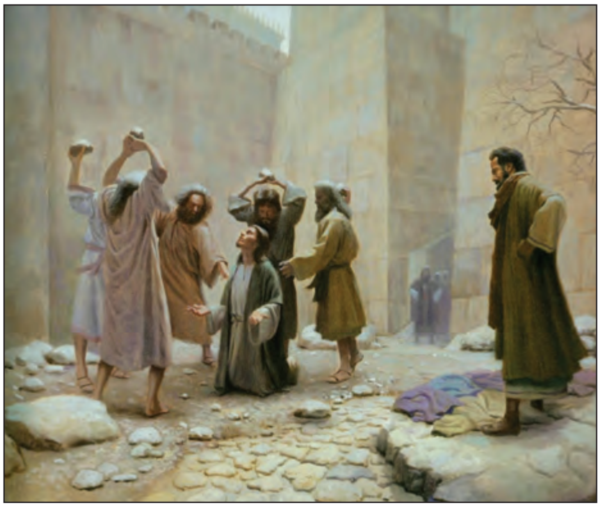
Jews Allow Non-Jews to Become Christians

Following extensive deliberation, some Jewish Christians, referred to as the "circumcised" ones[14] chose to admit Cornelius, a non-Jew, into their group. Although Simon Peter had accepted Cornelius as a convert, other apostles and Jewish Christians vociferously opposed, maintaining that only those "circumcised after the manner of Moses" could attain salvation through Jesus.[15]

The issue was conclusively resolved at a pivotal meeting named the "Council of Jerusalem,"[16] where it was determined that non-Jews could convert to Christianity only if they underwent circumcision and pledged to "observe the laws of Moses."[17]

However, the non-Jews who converted to Christianity were consistently reminded of their outsider status, with the Apostle Paul stating in his Epistle to the Ephesians that they should "remember that at that time you were separate from the Messiah, excluded from citizenship in Israel."[18]

CHRISTIAN JEW STEPHEN STONED IN JERUSALEM



According to the biblical Acts of the Apostles, Stephen was a deacon in the early Christian Church in Jerusalem who angered Jews with his teachings. Accused of blasphemy, he was stoned to death, becoming the first Christian martyr. According to the story, one of those present at the stoning was Saul of Tarsus, later known as Paul the Apostle. There is no evidence for Stephen's existence outside of the claims made in the Bible.

The Bible thereby establishes that Christianity was initiated by Jews and was extended to Gentiles somewhat reluctantly, and even then with conditions ensuring that these converts would adopt Jewish laws, beliefs, and lifestyles. Consequently, it initially appealed primarily to Jews, albeit in limited numbers.

Jews Begin Persecuting Their Dissidents

Although the first Christians were Jews, the majority of Jews viewed them as dissidents and heretics. This was primarily because Christianity contravened a central tenet of Judaism, which held that biological descent, not conversion, was the sole means by which one could become a Jew. This belief was the foundation for the debate over the conversion of Cornelius and other non-Jews.

Chief rabbis took action to suppress the emerging sect, and their efforts quickly led to violence, as depicted in biblical accounts. The animosity between Jewish Christians and mainstream Jews is vividly portrayed in the stoning of St. Stephen, one

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[12] Acts 10: 1–4.

[13] Acts 10:13–15: "And a voice came to him, 'Rise, Peter; kill and eat.' But Peter said, 'Not so, Lord! For I have never eaten anything common or unclean.' And a voice spoke to him again the second time, 'What God has cleansed you must not call common.'"

[14] Acts 10: 45: "And those of the circumcision who believed were astonished, as many as came with Peter, because the gift of the Holy Spirit had been poured out on the Gentiles also."

[15] Acts 15: 1: "And certain men came down from Judea and taught the brethren, "Unless you are circumcised according to the custom of Moses, you cannot be saved."

[16] Acts 15: 1–14.

[17] Acts 15: 5: "But some of the sect of the Pharisees who believed rose up, saying, 'It is necessary to circumcise them, and to command them to keep the law of Moses.'"

[18] Ephesians 2: 12.

"TOMB OF ST PAUL," ROME

The reputed tomb of Paul of Tarsus, formerly Saul, is attributed to the individual who, more than any other single person, is credited with spreading Christianity throughout the eastern parts of the Roman Empire. Although there are no official records indicating his fate, Christian tradition holds that he was executed in Rome and buried outside the city walls. A church was first constructed over his reputed tomb by the first Christian emperor, Constantine I, and it was substantially rebuilt over the centuries to what it is today: the Basilica Papale di San Paolo fuori le Mura ("The Papal Basilica of Saint Paul Outside the Walls"). The church's altar was erected over the alleged tomb.

of the earliest Christian martyrs. The Book of Acts recounts that Stephen, appointed as a deacon in the early church in Jerusalem, preached to his fellow Jews, leading many to accept Jesus as the Messiah. Nevertheless, he faced opposition from "certain of the synagogue" who accused him of uttering "blasphemous words against Moses, and against God."[19]

Subsequently, Stephen was stoned to death. His bloodied garments were brought before a Jew named Saul, one of the instigators of the anti-Christian sentiment, who had been commissioned by the chief rabbis to eliminate the Jewish Christians.

This violent episode seemingly prompted the majority of Jewish Christians to leave Judea, fearing for their safety. They relocated to various parts of the Roman Empire, notably in Egypt and Asia Minor, establishing the earliest Christian communities.

The Jew Saul to who the bloodied clothes of Stephen were presented, is now more commonly known as "Paul of Tarsus." He is among the few biblical figures whose existence is corroborated by external sources. However much of what is claimed about him and his activities originates from the Bible or texts purportedly authored by him.

Saul of Tarsus Transforms into Paul, Foremost Propagator of Christianity

According to these biblical accounts, Saul was native to the city of Tarsus in the Roman province of Cilicia (modern-day southern Turkey) but was reared in Jerusalem and schooled in Jewish law.[20] He identified himself as a "Hebrew of Hebrews."[21]

Tasked with apprehending Jewish Christians in Damascus, Saul purportedly experienced a vision of Jesus, leading to his conversion to Christianity.[22] Almost instantaneously, he transformed from a staunch adversary of Jewish Christianity to one of its most ardent proponents.

After his conversion and subsequent name change to Paul, he embarked on several evangelical missions throughout the Roman Empire, venturing into Asia Minor, and Greece. He established Christian congregations in significant cities such as Corinth, Ephesus, and Philippi. Paul is also accredited with penning numerous epistles in the New Testament, including Romans, Corinthians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, among others.

However, Paul's activities and doctrines elicited resistance from his Jewish contemporaries. The Book of Acts recounts that during his stay in Corinth, Greece, local Jews, disapproving of his teachings, seized him and presented him before Gallio, the Roman proconsul of the Province of Achaia. They alleged that Paul was encouraging worship in manners contrary to Jewish law. Before Paul could defend himself, Gallio dismissed the accusations as a Jewish internal dispute, deeming it inappropriate for Roman adjudication.[23]

Paul's mission was eventually interrupted following a Jewish uprising during his visit to Jerusalem. Detained by Roman officials, he was incarcerated in Caesarea for two years and was later transferred to Rome for trial, invoking his privileges as a Roman citizen.[24] While the New Testament does not chronicle Paul's demise, early Christian tradition suggests he was executed around the mid-60s AD and lies interred near the present-day Vatican.

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[19] Acts 6: 8–14.

[20] Acts 22:3.

[21] Philippians 3:5, 6.

[22] Acts 9:1–19.

[23] Acts 18:12–17.

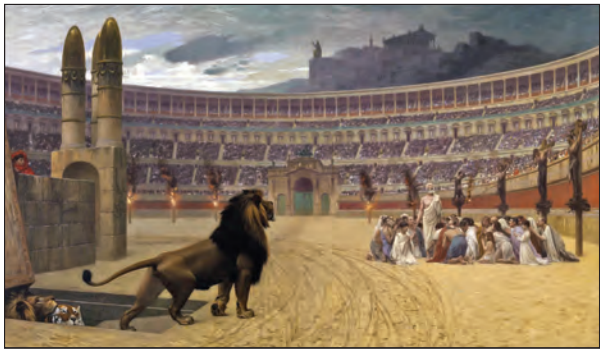
[24] Acts 21–28.

Initial Roman Hostility to the Spread of Christianity

Initially, the traditional Roman tolerance towards the various religions within the Empire's borders allowed Christianity to spread without opposition. However, as certain aspects of Christian teachings — such as passivity, which precluded military service, and other attributes deemed un-Roman — became more prevalent, the authorities began trying to limit the religion's growth. Notable emperors who attempted to halt the spread of Christianity included:

- Nero (reigned 54–68 AD): One of the earliest and most infamous persecutions occurred under Nero. After the Great Fire of Rome in 64 AD, Nero claimed to have proof that Christians had started the fire, leading to a severe crackdown during which many Christians were arrested, tortured, and executed.
- Trajan (reigned 98–117 AD): When Pliny the Younger, the governor of Bithynia, sought guidance from Trajan on handling Christians, Trajan advised that Christians should not be actively sought, but if reported and they refused to renounce Christianity, they should face punishment.
- Septimius Severus (reigned 193–211 AD): In 202 AD, Severus issued an edict that prohibited Roman citizens from converting to Judaism and Christianity. The prohibition of conversion to Judaism was, in fact, redundant as Jews did not generally permit conversions. However, the inclusion of both religions in the edict indicated they were often viewed as closely related.
- Decius (reigned 249–251 AD): Decius began one of the first empire-wide persecutions of Christians. He issued an edict mandating all residents of the empire to offer a sacrifice to the gods and pray for the emperor's well-being. Those who complied received a certificate, while refusal frequently led to execution. This persecution aimed primarily at reinforcing the traditional Roman pagan religion and bolstering the institution of the emperor.
- Valerian (reigned 253–260 AD): Though initially tolerant of Christians, Valerian later promulgated edicts resulting in their persecution. High-ranking Christians, such as bishops, were the main targets; their property was seized, and their gatherings were outlawed.

NO EVIDENCE OF CHRISTIANS “BEING FED TO THE LIONS”



It has become popular lore that Christians were "fed to the lions" and other wild beasts for entertainment in the early days of the church in Rome, as depicted in this fanciful 1883 painting, "The Christian Martyrs' Last Prayer," by Jean-Léon Gérôme. However, there is no evidence that Christians were ever martyred in such a gruesome way. All the texts which refer to the persecution of Christians (including the Bible, Tacitus, and Tertullian) never mention them being fed to the lions. Instead, they discuss conventional executions or torture, which was routine at the time.

- Diocletian and the Tetrarchy (reigned 284–305 AD): Diocletian's persecution, commencing in 303 AD, was the most expansive and severe. Over eight years, multiple edicts led to the demolition of churches, the incineration of scriptures, and the execution of many Christians who resisted.

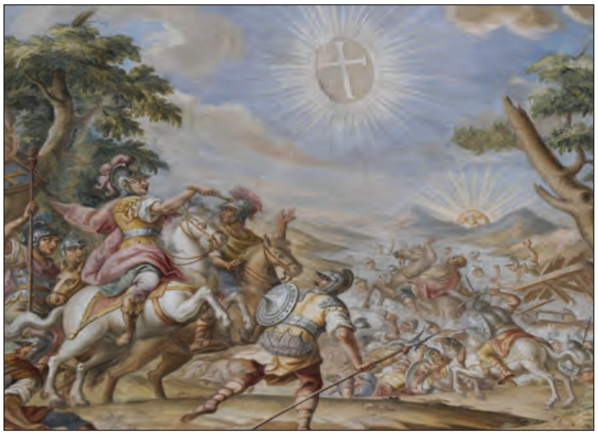
Nevertheless, Christianity was a religion that found strength in martyrdom, given that its central figure, Jesus Christ, had also been purportedly martyred for his beliefs.

By the late 3rd century, the number of Christians within the empire had grown considerably, with significant Christian communities emerging in cities like Rome, Carthage, Alexandria, and Antioch.

In Hoc Signo Vinces: The Battle of the Milvian Bridge

The early 4th century was a period of significant unrest and political fragmentation in the Roman Empire. The Tetrarchy, a system in which four emperors ruled the empire, was instituted by Emperor Diocletian to ensure stability. However, by the early 4th century, this system had begun to crumble, leading to a series of conflicts between various claimants to the throne.

"IN HOC SIGNO VINCES" MILVIAN BRIDGE, 312 AD



Christian tradition claims that the Roman Emperor Constantine I defeated a rival contender for the throne at the 312 AD Battle of the Milvian Bridge after seeing a vision from the Christian God saying that if he adopted that religion, he would win the battle. As part of his vision, Constantine is said to have seen a message which read, In hoc signo vinces *("In this sign, you will conquer.") While the story is clearly allegorical, Constantine did go on to become the first Christian emperor and started the process which resulted in the extermination of all non-Christian religions within the borders of the empire. (Nave of the Church of the Holy Cross, Schwabhausen, Landsberg, Germany, 1779.)*

By 312 AD, the Western Roman Empire witnessed a clash between two primary contenders for the role of senior emperor: Maxentius, who controlled Rome and parts of Italy, and Constantine, who held sway over Gaul (modern-day France) and Britain.

On October 28, 312 AD, Constantine's forces confronted those of Maxentius at the Milvian Bridge, which spans the Tiber River just north of Rome.

It is said that on the eve of the battle, Constantine experienced a vision or a dream. The most widely recognized version, primarily promoted by the 4th-century Christian historian and bishop, Eusebius describes how Constantine observed a symbol in the sky: a chi-rho (an overlay of the Greek letters χ (Chi) and ρ (Rho), which are the first two letters of the Greek word "ΧΡΙΣΤΟΣ" or "Christ"). Alongside this symbol appeared the words *In Hoc Signo Vinces* ("In this sign, you will conquer."). Interpreting this as a divine omen, Constantine is said to have had the chi-rho symbol painted on his soldiers' shields.[25] Although outnumbered, Constantine's troops secured a decisive victory. Maxentius' forces were repelled, and Maxentius himself perished in the Tiber during the retreat.[26]

313 AD Edict of Milan Legitimizes Christianity

Regardless of the exact details surrounding Constantine's victory at the Milvian Bridge, it led to his becoming the first Christian Emperor and ruler of the western half of the Roman Empire. While some historians have debated his conversion to Christianity, it is a documented fact that he was baptized shortly before his death in 337 AD. This was consistent with the practices of the time; many believed that baptism cleansed an individual of sins, so postponing baptism until near the end of one's life meant fewer opportunities to sin afterward.

In 313 AD, a year after the battle at the Milvian Bridge, Constantine and his eastern counterpart, Licinius, issued the Edict of Milan. This edict granted religious tolerance to Christians, allowing them to practice their faith openly. Constantine personally favored Christianity, bestowing upon it privileges and involving himself in its internal matters. He sponsored the construction of Christian churches and appointed many Christians to key administrative positions.

"Donation of Constantine"—A Fabrication

Constantine's conversion to Christianity directly led to the most famous forgery in European history: the "Donation of Constantine." This document claims to be an official decree by Constantine, with its main content being the conferral of temporal authority over the city of Rome and the entire Roman Empire to the bishop of Rome, Sylvester I (who reigned from 314-335 AD), in gratitude for Sylvester miraculously curing the emperor of leprosy. Despite the numerous evident factual inaccuracies within the document, the "Donation" was invoked for over a millennium to grant the Bishop of Rome—who would later become the paramount figure in the "Roman Catholic"[27] Church—to legitimize his leading position as leader of the church and thus of Christian Europe.

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[25] *Vita Constantini,* Eusebius, Book I, chapters 28–31.

[26] It should be emphasized that accounts of Constantine's vision differ. Some earlier sources do not reference the vision, while others characterize it as a dream rather than a daytime sighting. Eusebius provides two contrasting narratives: one in his *Ecclesiastical History* and a more elaborate account in his *Vita Constantini.* Consequently, while the vision and the phrase *In Hoc Signo Vinces* are firmly embedded in Christian historical recollection, they remain topics of extensive discussion and interpretation among historians. However, the notion of a "vision" is most certainly a fabrication.

The authenticity of the Donation of Constantine was not seriously challenged until around 1440. It was then conclusively exposed as a forgery, following an in-depth linguistic and historical examination by the Renaissance humanist Lorenzo Valla (1407–1457).

However, by this point, the Catholic Church had already firmly established itself as the dominant temporal power throughout most of Europe.

The Office of the Pope

As Christianity became formalized throughout the empire, each major town was assigned a religious leader known as a bishop. However, due to the "Petrine Doctrine," the bishop of Rome consistently held an elevated status. The Petrine Doctrine asserted that Jesus had appointed the apostle Peter as the leader of his followers and consequently the head of the Christian Church.[28]

Since Christian tradition maintains that Peter was martyred in Rome (though there is no contemporary evidence to support this claim), the bishops of Rome believed they had special authority as Peter's successors.

Over the initial centuries of Christianity, the Bishop of Rome started to be recognized as a pivotal figure among various Christian communities, especially in the West. Gradually, this office was acknowledged as the most influential and adopted the title "Pope" (from the Latin word *papa* meaning "father").

By the seventh century AD, the pope had emerged as the spiritual leader of all Christendom and wielded considerable political power, bolstered by the fabricated Donation of Constantine.

The pope also adopted the color purple, associated with Roman emperors, which remains a prominently used color in many Christian Churches to this day.

JULIAN THE APOSTATE ATTEMPTS TO HALT THE ADVANCE OF CHRISTIANITY

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Emperor Flavius Claudius Julianus (reigned 331–363 AD) was best known for his rejection of Christianity and his attempts to reverse the Christianization policies of his predecessors. For this action, he has been given the name "the Apostate." (Solidus coin, circa 362 AD.)

Julian the Apostate Attempts to Halt Christianity

One of Constantine's immediate successors, Julian (reigned 361–363 AD), endeavored to revert to traditional Roman religious practices and encouraged active resistance against Christian influence. Among his initiatives, he sought to reinstate the privileges of the pagan priesthood, reconstruct pagan temples, and rejuvenate traditional festivals and ceremonies. He also prohibited Christians from teaching classical texts, arguing that a foundation in classical literature was essential for societal advancement within the Roman Empire.

Julian's most renowned book, *Against the Galileans,* was widely read—only to become one of the most suppressed books in history when it was prohibited, and all its copies were obliterated following his demise. Julian earned the epithet "apostate" due to his endeavors to curtail Christianity.

Julian's approach in attempting to curtail Christianity exemplified how the personal inclinations of an emperor could dramatically sway the entire empire. This notion was further underscored by his successor, Jovian (reigned 363–364 AD), who promptly reversed all of Julian's policies and restored the Empire's allegiance to Christianity.

Christian Disputes Immediately Break Out

Although there was initially only one Christian church—the Catholic Church—disputes over interpretations of the religion arose among its adherents. As Christianity spread, it became increasingly disorganized, with serious disagreements arising among various missionaries.

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[27] The term "Catholic" originates from the Greek adjective καθολικός (katholikos), which translates to "universal." This nomenclature reaffirmed the universality principle inherent in Christianity.

[28] Matthew 16:18: "You are Peter, and on this rock, I will build my church; and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it."

CODEX SINAITICUS—WORLD'S OLDEST "COMPLETE" BIBLE

Copied around the middle of the fourth century in the south-eastern Mediterranean, the Codex Sinaiticus is the earliest extant manuscript to contain the complete New Testament and most of the books of the Greek version of the Old Testament, the Septuagint. Its name is derived from the monastery of St Catherine at the foot of Mount Sinai, where it was preserved until the middle of the 19th century. The Codex Sinaiticus was likely compiled after the Council of Hippo in 329 AD, when the disparate manuscripts used by Christian leaders throughout the Roman world were brought together into one book to reduce disputes over interpretation. An interesting section of the Codex Sinaiticus, which was omitted in later versions of the Bible, is found in its Matthew 27:49 verse. It describes the piercing of Christ's side by a Roman soldier with a spear while on the cross. According to the Codex version, the soldier "took a spear and pierced His side, and immediately water and blood came out."

One of the earliest conflicts revolved around the doctrine known as "Arianism" (named after Arius, a Christian leader in Alexandria), concerning the three components of the Trinity: God, Christ, and the Holy Spirit. The belief that all three entities were one and the same was contested by Arius, who posited that Christ could not also be God.

The gravity of this dispute led Emperor Constantine to convene a significant assembly of all the prominent Christian leaders in 325 AD, an event that came to be known as the First Council of Nicaea, to address the issue.

The most enduring resolution of the council was the Nicene Creed, which rejected the Arian perspective. Arianism was deemed heretical, and Arius was expelled from his position.

Bible Compiled from Numerous Sources

Christian tradition posits that the Bible is the word of God. However, this claim presents challenges when considering the origins of the various books of the Bible and the manner in which it was assembled into the format widely recognized today.

The compilation of the Bible was an intricate undertaking spanning numerous centuries. This endeavor was shaped by a myriad of historical, theological, and political considerations that determined the acceptance or omission of specific texts. The original Hebrew scriptures—incorporated in the Christian Bible's Old Testament—trace back to roughly the 3rd century BC onwards (for instance, the Book of Isaiah was discovered among the Dead Sea Scrolls). King Ptolemy II Philadelphus (285–246 BC) is acclaimed for commissioning the translation of Jewish religious texts into Greek, resulting in the creation of the Septuagint, intended for the vast Jewish diaspora in Egypt.[29]

The texts of the New Testament first surfaced (that is, they debuted from unidentified origins) during the 1st century AD. Authored in Greek, these manuscripts presented notable variations from each other on numerous subjects, encompassing events from Jesus's life, the doctrines of the faith, and various other matters.

Bible Formalized at Council of Hippo, 393 AD

The result was significant confusion and a divergence of beliefs, the most serious of which was the Arian controversy.

The Christian theologian Marcion of Sinope (c. 85–160 AD) from Asia Minor introduced a list of works that he believed should form the foundation of Christian doctrine. His collection of manuscripts included only one Gospel, that of Luke, and a modified version of Paul's letters.

Although Marcion was labeled a heretic and excommunicated for his initiatives, he highlighted a major shortcoming in Christianity: the absence of a unified canon of scripture.

Consequently, Christian leaders gathered at the North African Councils of Hippo (393 AD) and Carthage (397 AD). It was during these councils that they formally compiled— from a plethora of manuscripts—the books that constitute the present-day Christian Bible.

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[29] The Septuagint encompasses several books absent from the Hebrew Bible, commonly termed the "Deuterocanonical" books by Catholics and "Apocrypha" by Protestants

THE GOSPEL OF THOMAS: "FEMALES NOT WORTHY OF LIFE," "JESUS WILL MAKE FEMALES INTO MALES SO THEY CAN GET INTO HEAVEN"

One of the books that the 396 AD Council of Hippo deliberately excluded from its official compilation of the Christian Bible was the Gospel of Thomas. Although they had access to it (as this Gospel is frequently mentioned by Christian writers of the time, such as Hippolytus of Rome (c. 222–235 AD) and Origen of Alexandria (c. 233 AD)), the Church Fathers chose not to include this Gospel in their compilation due to its content, which differed significantly from the other Gospels. The two primary objections to the Gospel of Thomas were its claims that there were 14 disciples of Jesus instead of 12, with the additional two being women (named as "Mariam" and "Salome"); and its quotation of one of the disciples, Simon Peter, stating that "females are not worthy of life." In response, Jesus is quoted as saying, "Look, I am going to guide her in order to make her male, so that she too may become a living spirit resembling you males. For every female who makes herself male will enter the kingdom of heaven." (Logion 114). This assertion was evidently deemed unacceptable, even in 396 AD. (Manuscript of the Gospel of Thomas, Coptic Museum, Cairo, Egypt.)

Nevertheless, the structure and content of the Bible continue to differ to this day. The Roman Catholic version of the Bible comprises 46 books, the Eastern Orthodox Bible has 49 books (though this number may vary slightly based on the specific Orthodox tradition), and the Protestant Bible features 39 books. Some of these books are divided into multiple sections (for example, 1 Samuel and 2 Samuel) but are considered a single book in the Jewish tradition.

Books Excluded from the Bible

Moreover, numerous manuscripts available during that era were not included in the formal compilation. These texts, often attributed to apostles or their immediate associates, are termed "apocryphal" or "non-canonical" writings. They were omitted primarily because their content either conflicted with or deviated significantly from the four Gospels chosen for inclusion.

The excluded writings encompass the Gospel of Thomas, the Gospel of Peter, the Gospel of Judas, the Gospel of Mary, the Acts of Paul and Thecla, the Shepherd of Hermas, the Letter of Barnabas, the Apocalypse of Peter, and the Infancy Gospel of James.

Christian Persecution of All Pagans

Once firmly established in power in the Empire, the Christian establishment embarked on a systematic program to persecute all pagans and eliminate all physical traces of non-Christian beliefs. In 341 AD, Constantine's son, Constantius II, issued an edict prohibiting all pagan sacrifices on the Italian peninsula. He followed this in 356 with two subsequent edicts that imposed the death penalty for worshiping pagan images and ordered the closure of all non-Christian temples.

As a result, many temples were either demolished or transformed into Christian churches. To "purify" many of the ancient statues within these structures, it became customary to engrave the symbol of the cross on the statues' faces. Other altars, which could not be altered in this manner, were completely destroyed.

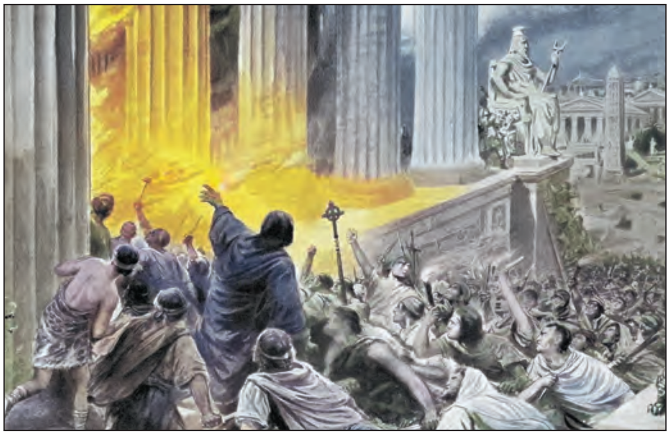
In 357, Constantius II promulgated another edict, rendering it illegal for anyone to consult a diviner, astrologer, or soothsayer, thereby effectively shutting down all pagan sites housing oracles.

That same year, Constantius II directed the removal of the "Altar of Victory" from the Senate building in the Roman Forum. This altar, presented to the Senate by Octavian Augustus in 29 BC, featured a statue of the ancient Roman goddess Victoria, an embodiment of the Greek goddess Athena.

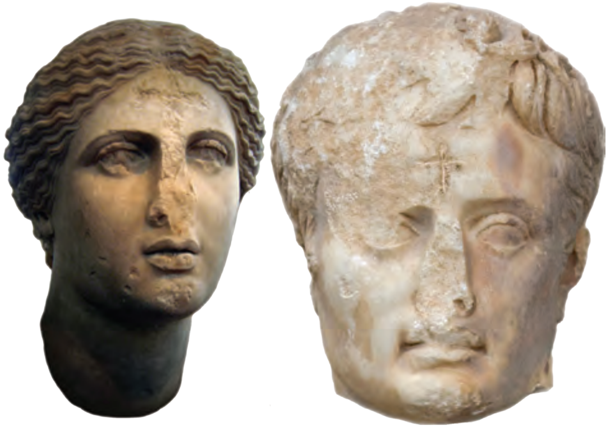
In 382 AD, Emperor Gratian (who reigned from 367–383 AD) terminated all state financial assistance to pagan temples and forbade pagan priests and the Vestal Virgin from inheriting land. He was also the first emperor to decline the title of Pontifex Maximus due to its association with other religions.

Earlier, Julian the Apostate had commanded the reinstallation of the "Altar of Victory" in the Roman Senate building in Rome. However, Gratian

CHRISTIAN DESTRUCTION OF PAGAN TEMPLES AND STATUES AFTER 391 AD



Incited by an edict from Theodosius I (reigned 379–395 AD) that ordered the destruction of all pagan temples and statues, a Christian mob in the city of Alexandria attacked the Serapeum, the last remaining part of the famous Library of Alexandria, in 391 AD. They burned it and its contents—thousands of irreplaceable antique classical works—because the works were considered "pagan."



It became common to "sanctify" pagan statues by disfiguring them with a Christian cross, as these examples show. Above left: An ancient bust of the goddess Aphrodite, found in the Roman Agora of Athens. (National Archaeological Museum, Athens). Above right: bust of Octavian Augustus. (Ephesus Archaeological Museum, Turkey).

mandated the final removal of the "Altar of Victory" from the Roman Senate building in 382 AD. The altar was subsequently destroyed at an unspecified later date.

Theodosius I: The Final Victory of Christianity

The reign of Emperor Theodosius I (379–395 AD) marked the final stages of the Christian effort to eradicate the remaining traces of paganism in the Roman Empire. In 380 AD, he issued the "Edict of Thessalonica" (also known as *Cunctos populos*), which established Nicene Christianity as the official and only state church of the Roman Empire.

As part of his measures, Theodosius I mandated the closure of all pagan temples, the abolition of pagan holidays, the extinguishing of the sacred fire in the Temple of Vesta in the Roman Forum (which had been alight continuously for at least 600 years), and the disbanding of the order of the Vestal Virgins at that location. Officials who did not enforce these edicts were detained and imprisoned.

Theodosius I further commanded the physical demolition of pagan temples and sites. Following this directive, places such as the Temple of Zeus in ancient Olympia were razed, likely around the time the Olympic Games were prohibited in 393 AD.

The Library of Alexandria, inaugurated by the Ptolemies after the time of Alexander the Great, had progressively deteriorated or suffered damage over the centuries. By the 4th century AD, only a segment of the vast collection of manuscripts persisted, located in a structure in the city termed the Serapeum. Upon hearing of Theodosius I's 391 edict prohibiting access to pagan temples, a zealous group of Christians, assisted by Roman Christian troops, the mob subsequently invaded the sanctuary, massacred the pagans, and incinerated the residual portions of the Library of Alexandria.

Theodosius I's 391 AD edict marked the formal enforcement of Christianity upon all Roman citizens. Within three decades, the decline of paganism was complete.

Reasons for Christianity's Spread

The reasons for Christianity's spread can likely be attributed to its underlying principle of the universality of man and the belief that all are equal in the eyes of God. This distinguished it not only from Judaism but also from many other religions of the time. Christianity's message of salvation was available to everyone, irrespective of social status, race, or origin.

Moreover, Christianity's promise of eternal life and resurrection presented a compelling alternative to several other religions that lacked such beliefs. The conversion of the Roman Empire to Christianity remains one of the most pivotal cultural moments in European history, with repercussions that have influenced European history up to the present day.

Chapter 21: The First Great Race War—Attila the Hun

The first significant invasion of Europe by a non-European people occurred during the last 50 years of the Western Roman Empire. This invasion was by an Asiatic people known as the Huns, nomadic warriors who originated from Central Asia, under the leadership of a man whose name has garnered a fearsome reputation: Attila the Hun.

The Roman-Goth historian, Jordanes, who provides much of the Gothic history, described Attila as "short of stature, with a broad chest and a large head; his eyes were small, his beard thin and sprinkled with gray; and he had a flat nose and tanned skin, showing evidence of his origin."[1]

The Huns were the primary force in what is known in East Asian history as the Xiongnu Empire. This was a loose confederation of Asians who, around the 3rd century BC, established an empire stretching from the eastern borders of the Caspian Sea to present-day eastern China.

From this vast base—which likely included a population of millions—the Huns gradually moved westward, reaching the Black Sea by the early 4th century AD.

First Hunnish Leaders

Even though Attila the Hun is the most renowned figure associated with the Huns, he only began leading them in 434 AD. Before him, the Asiatics had several leaders, but only a few of Attila's immediate predecessors are known to history.

These predecessors were the ones who spearheaded the initial westward movement, and according to records, they included Uldin, who led the Huns around 400 AD (leading them into the first skirmishes against the Eastern Roman Empire), and Ruga, who ruled from approximately 430 to his death in 434 AD. Under Ruga's leadership, the Huns solidified their power and placed pressure on the Eastern Roman Empire. They secured a treaty with the Eastern Romans in 432 AD that required the Romans to pay regular tribute to the Huns.

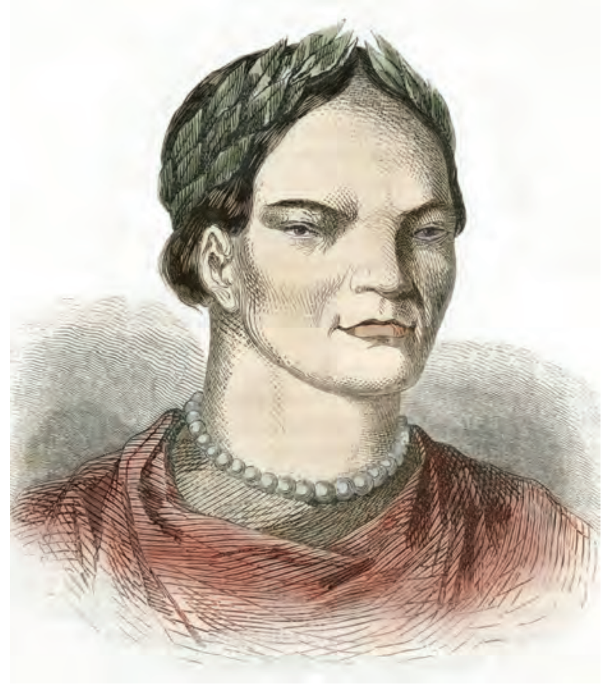
Huns Devastate the Indo-European Homeland

The Hunnish invasion of the Indo-European heartland marked a significant turning point in Indo-European history. The region, which had birthed countless Indo-European tribes, was obliterated and experienced genetic extermination. From this point forward, no Indo-European tribe would emerge from this region.

The Huns continued their westward advance, and by the late 4th century, they reached the territories north of the Black Sea, where they subjugated the last of the Indo-European tribes, the Alans.

The unprepared Alans were attacked by the Huns in 372 AD. Utilizing their advanced cavalry skills, the Huns quickly defeated the Alans in a

ATTILA—THE SCOURGE OF EUROPE



Attila the Hun, as depicted in a Roman portrayal, led an Asiatic terror that swept across Europe with such fury and cruelty that his name remains, to this day, a byword for tyranny.

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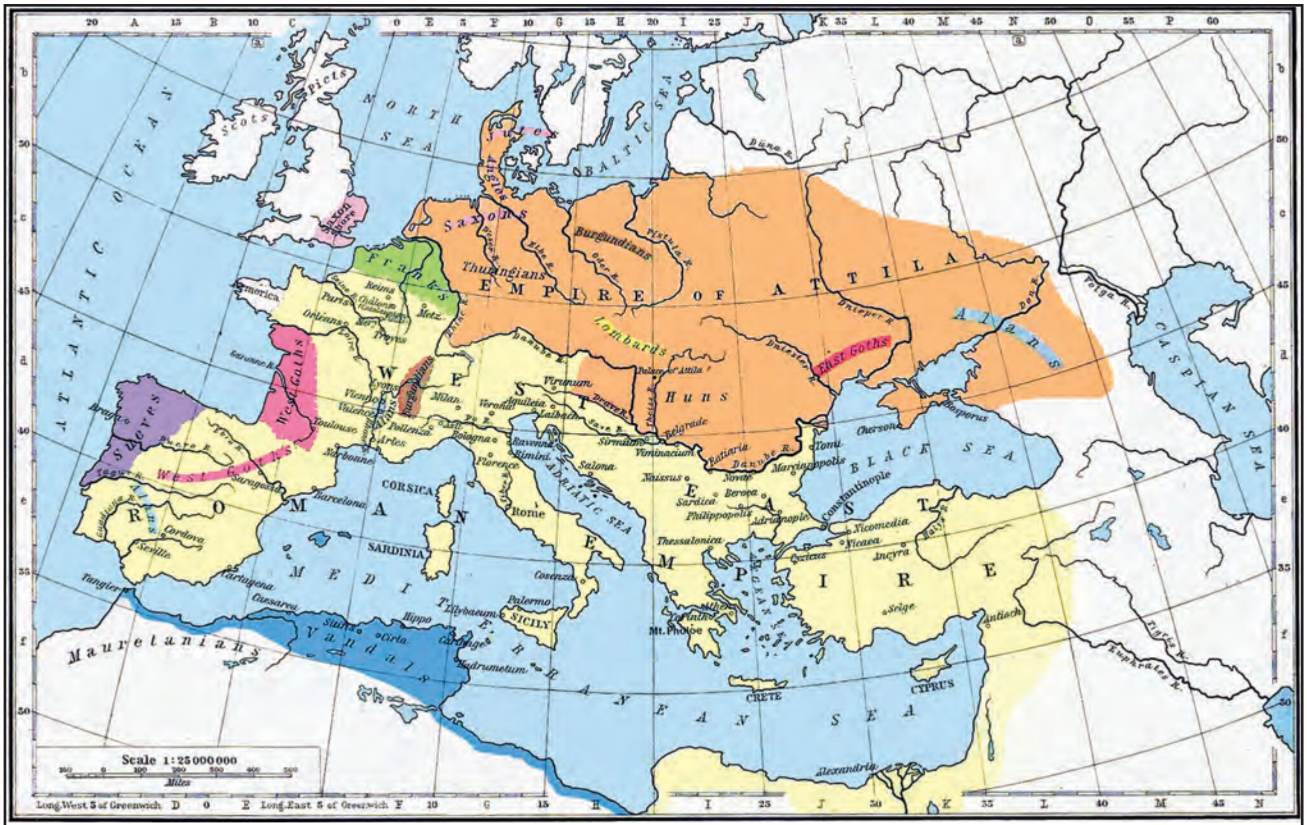
[1] *Getica*, or "The Origin and Deeds of the Goths", Jordanes, Chapter XXIV, 24.



*A map shows the full extent of the conquests of Attila the Hun in Europe around 450 AD. (*Historical Atlas, *Shepherd, W. R., 1911.)*

brief series of encounters. Survivors of the Alans fled south and west, seeking refuge with the Gothic tribes and bringing with them the initial accounts of the Asiatic threat.

Goths on the Northern Borders of Roman Empire

The Goths were a Germanic people who originally resided in Scandinavia before migrating southeastward to the regions presently known as Poland and Ukraine. By the 3rd century AD, two main Gothic groups had emerged: the Visigoths (West Goths) and the Ostrogoths (East Goths).

The Goths began interacting significantly with the Roman Empire in the late 3rd century when they raided territories across the Danube River, the northern boundary of the Eastern Roman Empire.

During the reign of Emperor Decius, the Goths invaded the Eastern Roman Empire, marking the start of the Gothic War.

In 251 AD, at the Battle of Abritus, the Goths secured a notable victory, which led to the death of Decius. This war positioned the Goths as a major impediment to any further eastern or northern expansion by the Romans and established the Danube River as the northern boundary, just as the Battle of Teutoburger Forest had solidified the Rhine River as the western frontier.

The Romans were, in any event, by this period in history, bleeding dry. The ever-decreasing number of Romans were incapable of supplying the manpower for further expansion, and the best they could do was, ironically, start employing the Germanics in the west, and the Goths in the east, as foederati, or paid mercenary troops. These troops were settled within the empire's borders and provided military service in exchange for land.

Hunnish Attack Displaces Goths

Despite their military prowess, the scattered Gothic tribes were caught off guard when the vast armies of the Huns approached their eastern borders. Consequently, the Huns advanced further west and invaded Ostrogothic territories (located in what is now western Russia).

The Ostrogothic king, Hermanric, took his own life when the magnitude of the invasion and defeat became evident. His successor, Vitimer, was killed in a subsequent battle against the Huns. With the

Ostrogothic kingdom crumbling in the face of the Asiatic onslaught, its survivors sought refuge to the west, in the territories of the Visigoths and Slavs. Athanaric, the Visigothic king, confronted the Huns at the Dniester River, currently in Bulgaria, but suffered defeat.

Goths Seek Refuge with the Romans

Following this defeat, the Visigoths retreated and implored the Romans to grant them permission to settle within the boundaries of the empire, hoping to find sanctuary from the aggressive Asiatic forces.

This request was particularly significant considering the prolonged history of conflict between the Romans and Visigoths, spanning nearly two centuries. Consequently, when the Romans eventually granted the Visigoths permission to enter their domain, it came with severe conditions.

The Visigoths were obligated to relinquish all their weapons and provide a significant number of their women and children as hostages.

The Visigoths crossed the Danube River into Roman territory in 376 AD, not BC, and settled in what is now Bulgaria. There, they found a brief respite from the aggression of the Huns.

Visigoth Rebellion—Battle of Adrianople

Once they crossed the Danube, the Goths were mistreated by Roman officials. Instead of being adequately supplied and integrated, they were exploited, starved, and abused. This maltreatment led to significant resentment among the Gothic refugees.

In response, a large contingent of Goths, under the leadership of Fritigern, rebelled against their Roman hosts. Their rebellion gained momentum when they defeated a Roman army in a preliminary engagement, bolstering their confidence.

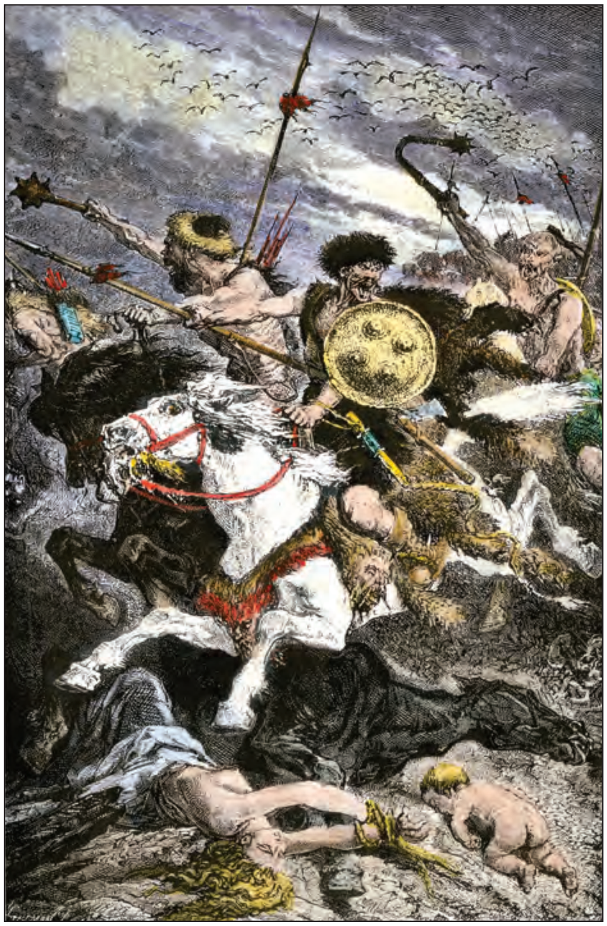
The Eastern Roman Emperor, Valens, who was in Antioch at the time, recognized the severity of the situation and led his army back to the Balkans to confront the Goths. Valens, either seeking a quick resolution or underestimating the Gothic forces, decided to face the Goths at Adrianople before the reinforcements from the Western Roman Emperor Gratian could arrive.

This confrontation culminated in the Battle of Adrianople on August 9, 378 AD. The Romans found themselves not only against the Gothic infantry but also their formidable cavalry, which they had not properly prepared for. This lack of preparation led to a devastating defeat for the Romans. The Eastern Emperor Valens perished in the battle, and a significant portion of the Roman army in the East was decimated.

The aftermath of Adrianople was momentous. The Romans' defeat exposed the weaknesses of their military and underscored the Empire's difficulty in handling mass migrations and external threats.

In the ensuing years, the Romans had to negotiate with the Goths, paving the way for other "barbarian" groups to seek settlement within the

HUNNISH TERROR SWEEPS ACROSS EUROPE



The Asiatic terror swept across Europe, resulting in the deaths of countless hundreds of thousands of whites. It was for good reason that the name "Attila the Hun" came be a byword for extreme savagery and murder. ("The Huns at the Battle of Chalons," A Popular History of France From The Earliest Times, Volume I. *Illustration: A De Neuville, 1886.)*

Empire's confines. Simultaneously, as the Goths and Romans contended with each other, the Huns were capturing former Visigothic territories. By the Battle of Adrianople, the Huns had taken control of most of Dacia, territory previously claimed by the Visigoths from the Romans, which corresponds to modern-day Romania.

Attila the Hun Leads the Hordes into Europe

After the death of the Hunnish leader Uldin in 434, Attila and his brother Bleda became leaders of the Hunnish hordes, which were now gathering in significant numbers on the borders of eastern Europe. Bleda died soon after, leaving Attila as sole leader.

Just six years later, in 441 AD, the Huns felt strong enough to launch their first major attack on the Eastern Roman Empire, ravaging towns and fortresses along the Danube.

After several successful campaigns, the Huns reached Constantinople in 443, where they attacked but failed to breach the city's renowned walls. They withdrew after negotiating a treaty in which the Romans agreed to pay a higher annual tribute.

In 447 AD, Attila initiated another vast invasion of the Eastern Roman Empire. His forces crossed the Danube once again, seizing and destroying numerous cities, and extended their reach as far south as Thermopylae in Greece.

Buoyed by these successes, Attila turned his attention to the Western Roman Empire, allegedly due to a rejected marriage proposal involving Honoria, the sister of the Western Roman Emperor Valentinian III. Whether the proposal was genuine or simply a pretext for invasion, it became a significant dispute.

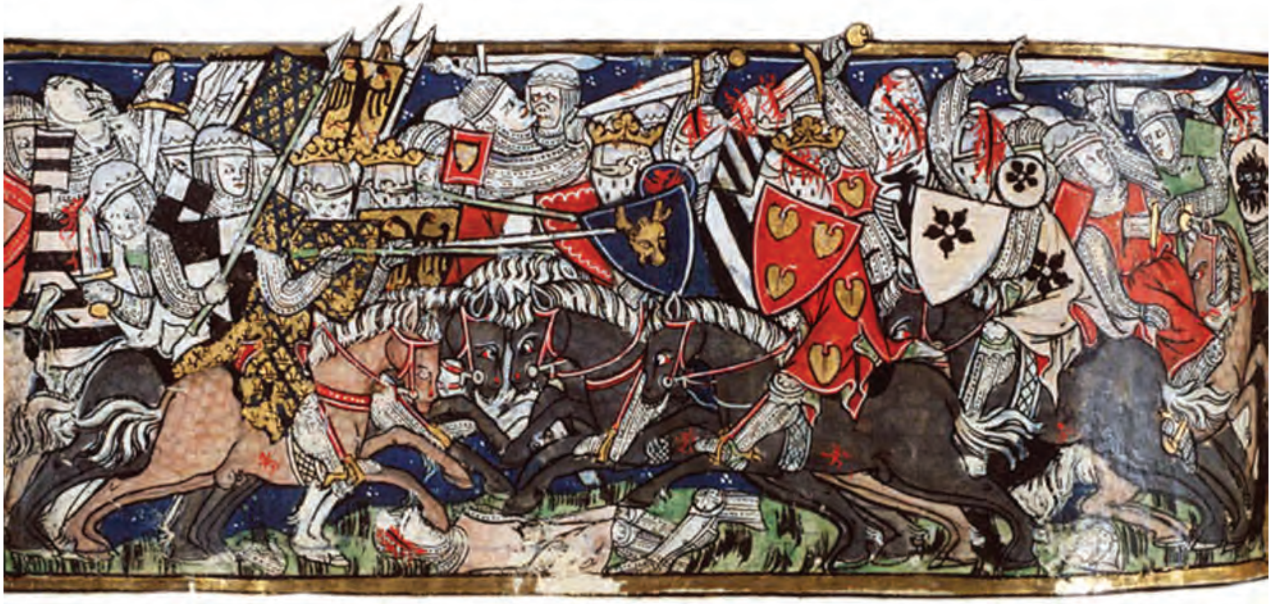
In 451 AD, Attila commenced his highly anticipated invasion of the Western Roman Empire. Within months, he advanced through Gaul (present-day France), laying waste to many cities in his path.

Romans, Goths Unite at the Battle of the Catalaunian Plains

The Battle of the Catalaunian Plains (also known as the Battle of Châlons because it occurred near the city of Châlons-en-Champagne in northeastern France) stands out as one of the most famous battles of antiquity. It is notable primarily because it saw the famed Hunnic leader Attila face a coalition of Roman and Germanic forces.

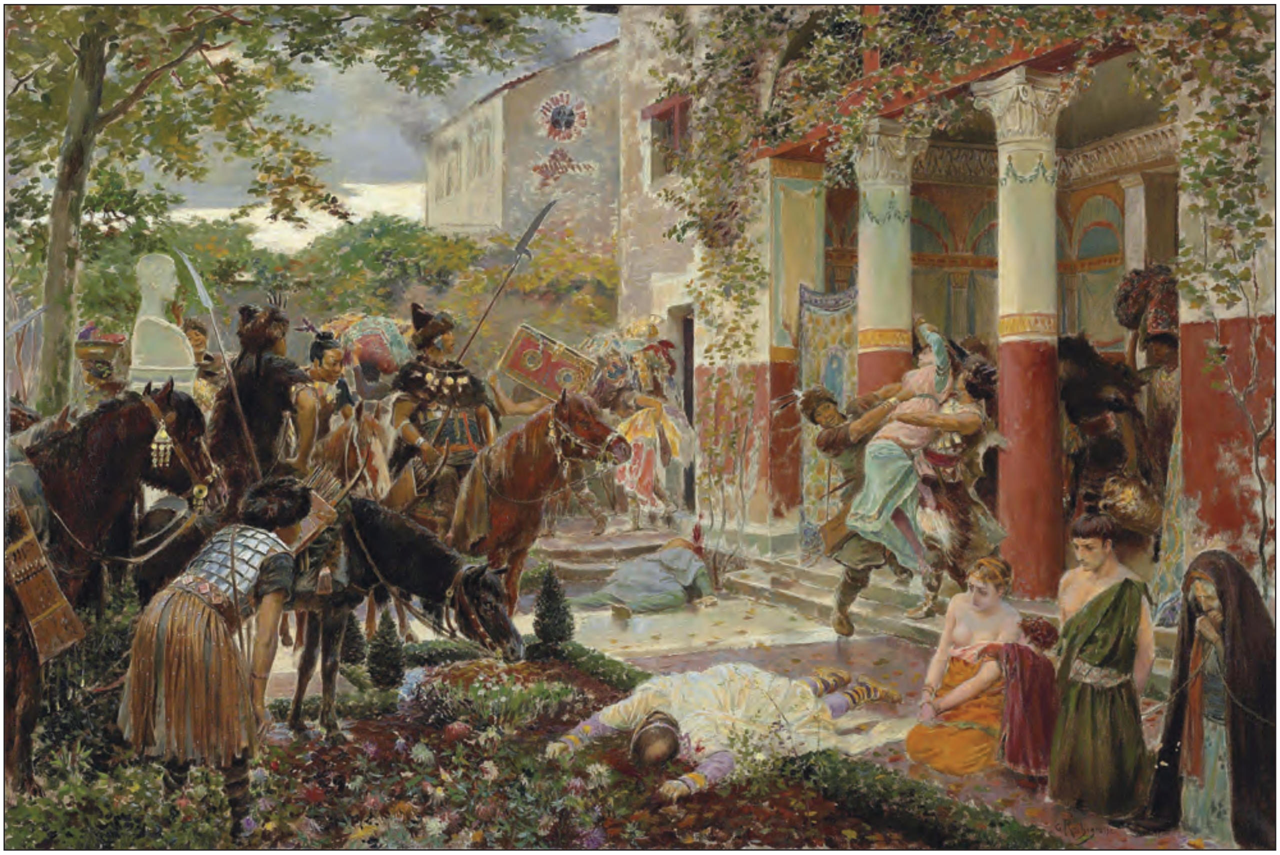
By this time, the Huns had accumulated allies during their extensive march westward. Attila

HUNNISH ADVANCE HALTED AT BATTLE OF THE CATALAUNIAN PLAINS



A combined Roman and Gothic army finally halted the Hunnish advance through Gaul at the Battle of the Catalaunian Plains in 450. The battle itself ended inconclusively, but it was enough to persuade the Huns to abandon their incursion into western Europe. (Spieghel Historiae, *KB KA 20, fol. 146v, 1282.)*

HUNS SACK TOWNS AND VILLAGES FROM GERMANIA TO GAUL



Huns sacking a villa in Gaul during their sweep into Western Europe. A scene which would be repeated countless times across the continent. (Attila et les Huns, Georges Rochegrosse, 1938).

commanded troops from Iranian and Turkic peoples, and even a detachment of Ostrogoths, led by Valamir. A smaller Germanic tribe, the Gepids, had also allied with the Huns. Some suggest these Germanics served the Huns under coercion, but there is no concrete evidence to support this claim.

However, the menace of the Hunnish army forced the Romans and the Visigoths into a united stance. A Roman army, commanded by one of the Western Empire's last genuinely Roman generals, Aetius, allied with a Visigoth army led by their king, Theodoric I.

The exact events of the battle are subjects of historical debate due to limited and potentially biased sources, but it was undeniably intense, with substantial casualties on both sides. Theodoric I fell during the battle's peak, and after a day of combat, both armies retreated as night approached.

Although neither claimed a definitive victory, the confrontation halted Attila's progression into Gaul. The Hunnic leader withdrew to his base on the Danube River (in the village of Buda, later integrated into the Hungarian city of Budapest) and consolidated his forces.

Attila Invades Italy 452 AD

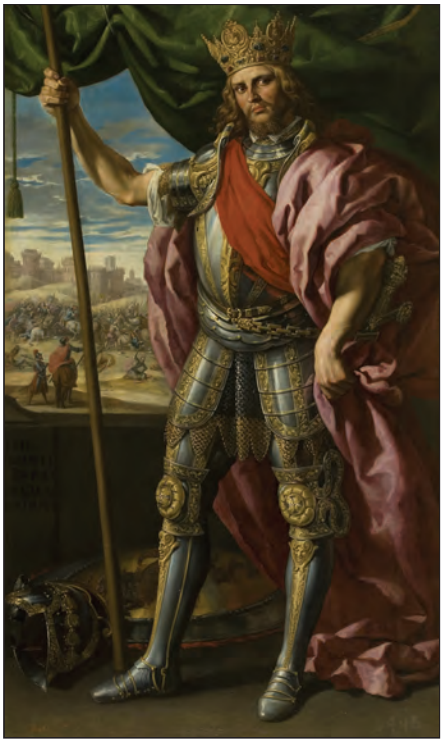
Attila's next move was to invade Italy and march directly on Rome. His first major target was Aquileia, one of the richest and most fortified cities in the Western Roman Empire.

After a prolonged siege, the Huns managed to breach the walls and sack the city. Aquileia was so thoroughly destroyed that it never regained its former prominence. Legend has it that the survivors founded Venice in the nearby lagoons to escape Attila's wrath.

After Aquileia, the Huns rampaged through northern Italy. Cities such as Verona, Padua, and Milan were either sacked or capitulated to Attila's forces. The terror caused by the Huns was so profound that many urban centers were deserted as their populations fled. Attila continued his southward advance, and there were fears he would besiege Rome. One of the legendary episodes from this invasion was the meeting between Attila and Pope Leo I. As the Huns approached Rome, Pope Leo, along with a Roman delegation, met Attila near the River Mincio in Northern Italy.

While the exact details of their discussion remain unclear, it ended with Attila deciding to turn back and not sack Rome. Various accounts credit Pope Leo's diplomacy, the threat of an outbreak of disease, lack of supplies, and even supernatural visions as reasons for Attila's decision.

THEODORIC I, GOTHIC LEADER



An idealized portrait of Theodoric I, the Gothic leader killed at the Battle of the Catalaunian Plains in 450 AD. (Theodoric, Gothic king, Felix Castello, 1635, Prado Museum, Madrid.)

The Huns Withdraw East

It is not known exactly what caused Attila and the Huns to withdraw east once again. It is speculated that they were facing supply issues, were losing large numbers to unexpected diseases, or that they were contending with pressures on their own eastern borders. Whatever the case, the Hunnish armies disappeared from Italy as swiftly as they had arrived.

The following year, in 453 AD, Attila suddenly died. The exact cause of his death has never been established, leading to numerous salacious rumors over the centuries, none of which have ever been substantiated. What did occur, however, is that after his death, the Huns seemed leaderless and disoriented, and the centralized control they had once exerted over their conquered territories began to fragment.

Battle of Nedao: Final Defeat of the Huns

Attila's death was the signal for revolt by the Europeans he had subjugated. In 454 AD, the Gothic and Gepid tribes, who had been subjugated by the Huns and incorporated into Attila's army, seized the opportunity to rebel. The Huns, led by one of Attila's sons, Ellac, gathered their forces to confront the uprising.

The Germanic forces were led by the Gepid king Ardaric, and the two armies clashed near the Nedao River in Pannonia, today situated on the Hungarian-Croatian border. The Germanic forces triumphed, delivering the Huns their most significant defeat. Ellac was killed during the battle, and the Hunnic forces were driven from the field. The Battle of Nedao became one of the most significant battles in white history. Without it, Europe would most likely have been completely overrun by Asiatics before 500 AD.

The Germanics, having defeated the Huns, gained renown among their contemporaries. The Icelandic term for "Germans" is still Þjóðverjar, which translates to "peoples' defender" (þjóðar = "peoples," and verndari = "defender").

After their overwhelming defeat by the Germans, the remaining Huns retreated eastward. They continued until they reached the Sea of Azov in southern Russia, perhaps believing that this distance would protect them from retribution for their invasions.

Hunnish Legacy for Europe

Although they were expelled from Europe, the Huns left two notable legacies. Firstly, they bequeathed their name to the territory that served as their European base, now known as Hungary; and secondly, due to their extended occupation of eastern Europe, the Hunnish incursion left a genetic trace. This minor genetic contribution today constitutes about 3 percent of Hungarian DNA.[2]

In subsequent centuries, the region between the Black and Caspian seas became a corridor for various groups from Asia, including the Avars, the Turks (who, in the form of the Ottoman Empire, were eventually only expelled from the European mainland after the First World War in 1918), the Magyars (who settled in Hungary), and others, some of whose descendants became the present-day Gypsies in Eastern Europe. Nevertheless, the defeat of the Huns saved Europe, and empowered the Germanics on Rome's eastern frontier to become increasingly aggressive with the racially-decaying Empire, which was now in its last few decades of existence.

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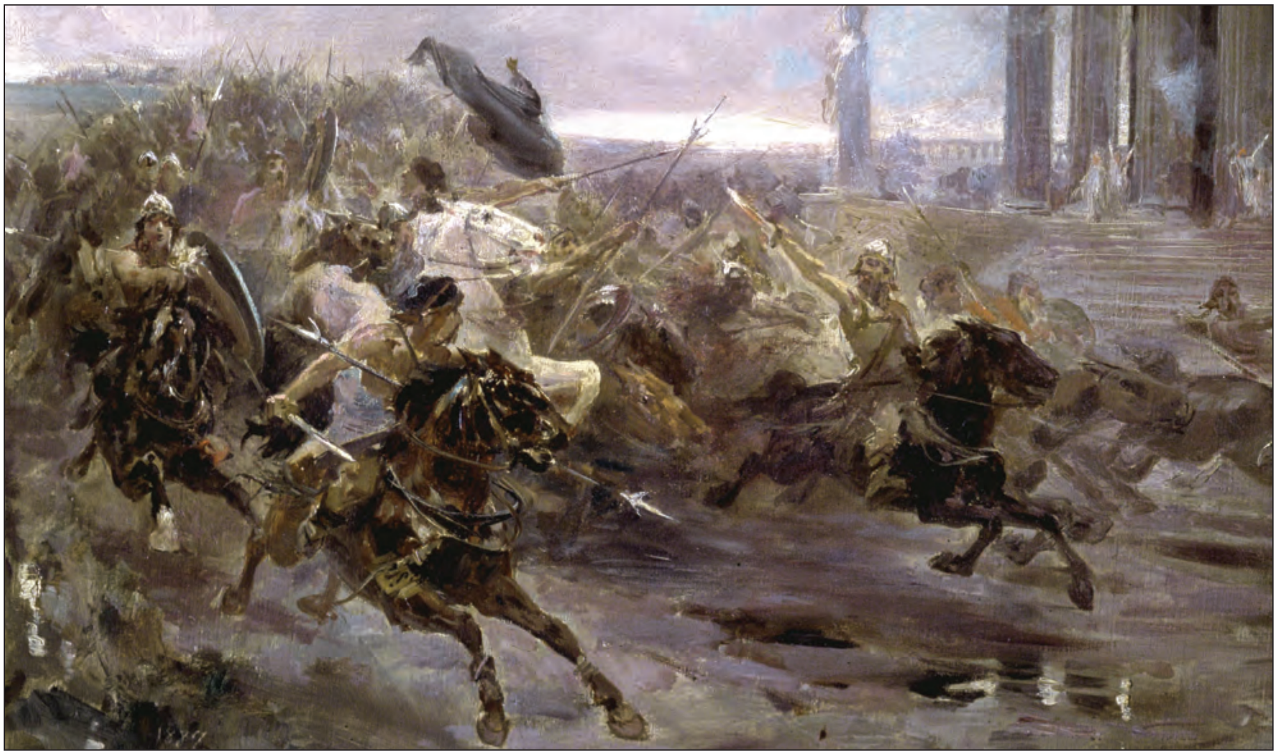
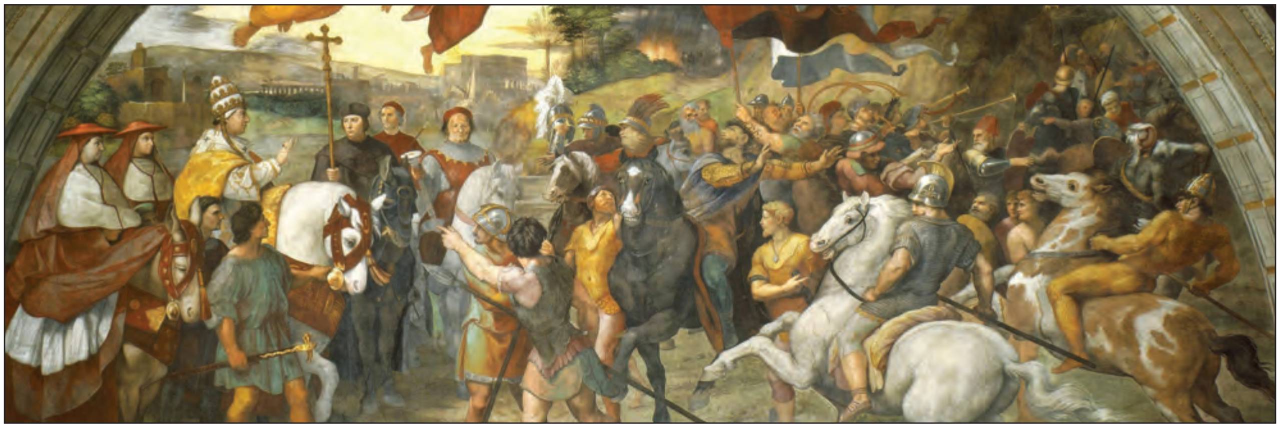
[2] See details in "Y-chromosomal connection between Hungarians and geographically distant populations of the Ural Mountain region and West Siberia," Post, H., et al., *Scientific Reports* volume 9, Article number: 7786, 2019, and "Y-chromosome haplogroups from Hun, Avar, and conquering Hungarian period nomadic people of the Carpathian Basin," Endre Neparáczki, E., et al., *Scientific Reports* volume 9, Article number: 16569, 2019.

HUNS RIDE TO THE GATES OF ROME, 452 AD



Attila the Hun led his Asiatic hordes to the very gates of Rome, before suddenly turning back. ("Invasion of the Barbarians or The Huns approaching Rome," Ulpiano Checa, 1887, Prado Museum, Madrid).

POPE LEO I MEETS ATTILA 452 AD



A fanciful portrayal of the meeting between Pope Leo I and Attila which allegedly prevented the latter from attacking Rome. The legend has arisen, as in this painting, that Attila grew afraid of a spiritual presence which accompanied the Pope. The reality is likely that the Hunnish army suffered from exhaustion and lacked enough provisions to continue. (Fresco by Raphael, 1234, Vatican Museums, Rome.)

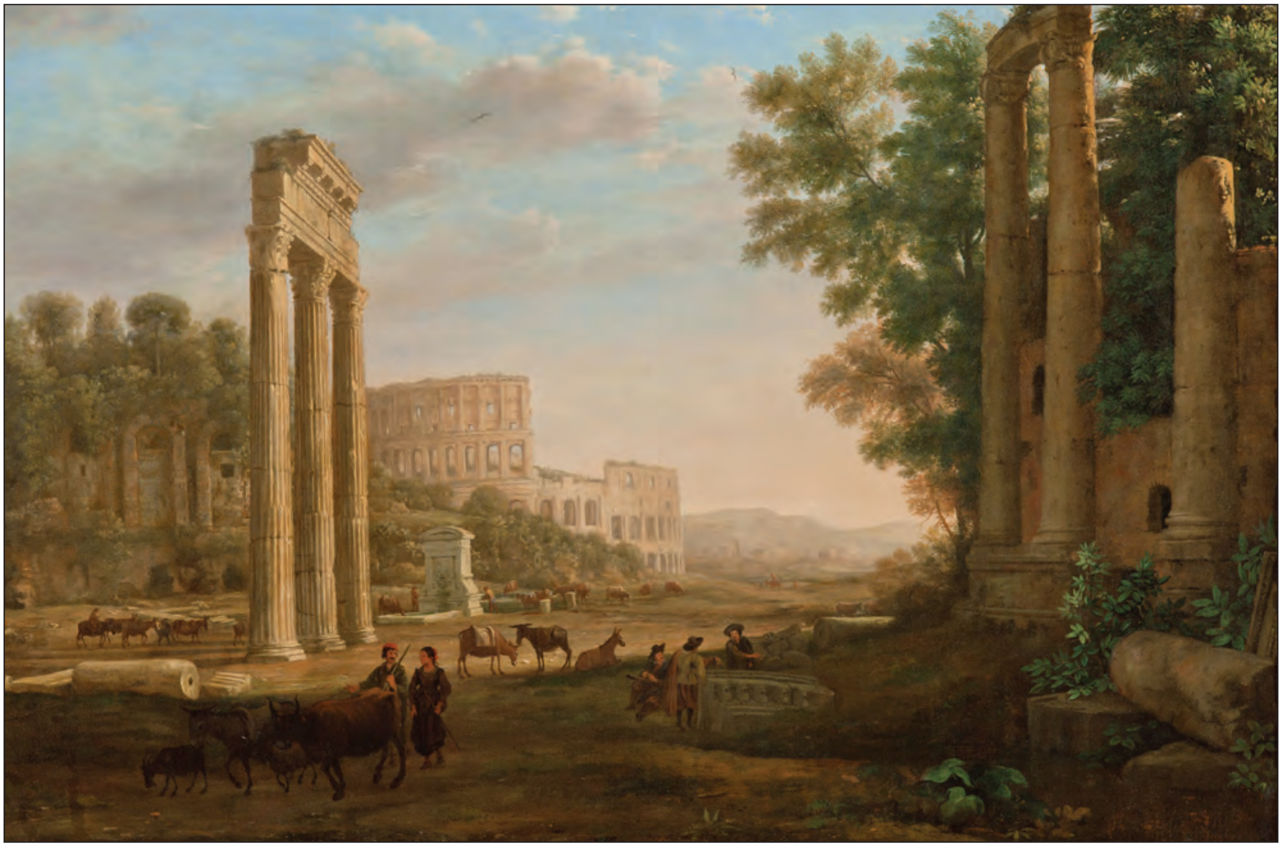
Chapter 22: Death Through Diversity—The Fall of the Western Roman Empire

The fall of the Western Roman Empire has preoccupied scholars for centuries. Many of the explanations put forth for the decline of this once powerful empire, such as "moral corruption," "over-extension," "economic exhaustion," and so forth, are often presented as the "cause" of Rome's decline. However, all of these theories overlook the real and obvious reason: the original Roman people were absorbed into a sea of racial diversity, leading to the disappearance of their civilization and culture.

The esteemed British historian, Edward Gibbon, in his monumental work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, estimated the population within the borders of the empire during the reign of Emperor Claudius (43 AD) to be around 120 million people. Of this number, Gibbon states, only approximately 6,945,000 were genuine Roman citizens.

The decision to grant citizenship to everyone within the empire, the allowance of unrestricted immigration into Rome, and the employment of

ROME'S POPULATION DWINDLES TO 10,000 BY EARLY MIDDLE AGES



After the fall of Rome, the city's population dwindled to as few as 10,000 by the early Middle Ages. The nearly empty ruins decayed, inspiring many artists of the time, including the Frenchman Claude Lorrain (1604–1682), who painted this view of the ruins of the Roman Forum in 1634. (Capriccio with Ruins of the Roman Forum, Claude Lorrain, 1634, Art Gallery of South Australia.)

millions of slaves from various races meant that the fewer than seven million original Romans were soon outnumbered by the 113 million non-Romans, of both white and nonwhite origins. This is the true reason for the fall of the Western Roman Empire.

While several authoritative historians in the late 19th and early 20th century identified racial replacement as the reason for the fall of Rome,[1] many continue to adhere to "environmental" explanations for the decline of Rome.

All of these "environmental" theories were conclusively disproven by a breakthrough 2019 archaeogenetic study that highlighted the reality that a change in the genetic makeup of Rome closely mirrored the fall of Rome.

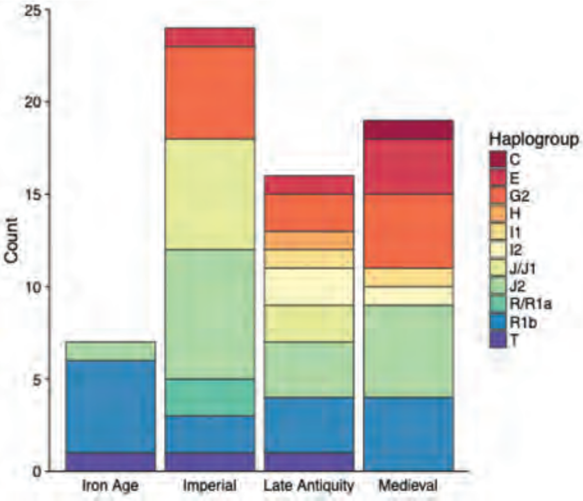
International Genetic Study Reveals Genetic History of the Roman Empire

In 2019, twenty-nine scientists from universities in the United States, Austria, Italy, France, and Ireland, funded by the US and Italian Governments[2] conducted DNA analysis on remains discovered at 29 archaeological sites in and around the city of Rome, covering 12,000 years of history.[3]

The study's findings were unmistakable: people from Rome's earliest times genetically resembled other Western European populations. However, during the Imperial period, there was a dramatic shift, with a majority of the sampled population displaying Eastern Mediterranean, North African, and Middle Eastern ancestry.[4]

Y-CHROMOSOME GENETIC DIVERSITY PARALLELS THE FALL OF ROMAN EMPIRE

The fall of the Western Roman Empire is revealed in this chart of how Y-chromosome diversity in Roman populations increased as the Empire collapsed.



The dramatic increase in the number of Y-Haplogroups from the period of the founding of Rome (referred to as the "Iron Age" in this chart) to that of Imperial Rome and Late Antiquity precisely reveals how the genetic diversity of the Roman Empire increased over time. The vast majority of the new haplogroups were of Middle Eastern origin. (Chart from "Fig. S5. Distribution of Y-chromosome haplogroups of ancient Italian individuals," Supplementary Material, p. 46, from "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., Science, *8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.)*

80 Percent of Rome's Population Non-European

The scientific study revealed that 80 percent of the population of Rome, before the fall of the Western Empire, were immigrants of Middle Eastern ancestry.[5] Of the 48 samples representing the period of the Empire, only two showed strong genetic ties to Europe. Another two demonstrated strong

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[1] Notable historians who posited that the fall of Rome was due to the assimilation of the Romans among a multitude of foreign races included Theodor Mommsen in his *The History of Rome,* 1854–1856 vol. V, p. 393; Charles Merivale in his *The Romans Under the Empire,* 1890, vol. 2. pp. 395–397; Tenney Frank in his "Race Mixture in the Roman Empire," *American Historical Review,* 1916, volume 21, pages 689–708; George La Piana in his "Foreign Groups in Rome During the First Centuries of the Empire," *The Harvard Theological Review,* 1927, vol. XX, pp. 188, 189; and A.M. Duff in his *Freedmen in the Early Roman Empire,* Oxford University Press, 1928, p. 191.

[2] The funding for the study came from the US Government's National Science Foundation, a Stanford Interdisciplinary Graduate Fellowship, the Stanford Archaeology Center, the Stanford Anthropology Department, the Howard Hughes Medical Institute, and the Italian Ministry of Education. "Stanford researchers lay out first genetic history of Rome," *Stanford News*, Stanford University, November 7, 2019.

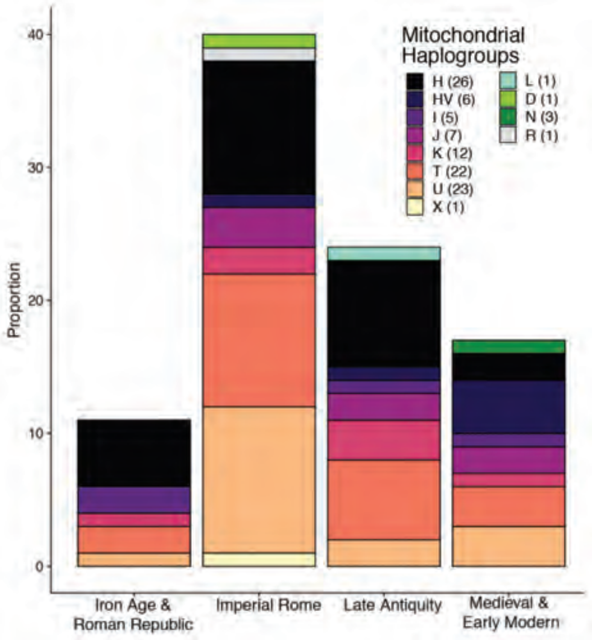
[3] "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., *Science,* 8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.

[4] "Many imperial Romans had roots in the Middle East, genetic history shows," *Science,* 7 Nov. 2019.

[5] Supplementary Materials, p. 26, in "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., *Science,* 8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.

mtDNA GENETIC DIVERSITY PARALLELS THE FALL OF ROMAN EMPIRE

The fall of the Western Roman Empire is revealed in this chart of how mtDNA diversity in Roman populations increased as the Empire collapsed.



The increase in the number of mtDNA haplogroups from different periods in Roman history also directly parallel the rise and fall of Rome. This chart shows how the mtDNA genetic diversity increased dramatically from the time of the founding of the Republic to the fall of the Empire, with the diversity reaching its peak just before the civilization's downfall. (Chart from "Fig. S4. Distribution of Y-chromosome haplogroups of ancient Italian individuals," Supplementary Material, p. 46, from "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., Science, 8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.)

North African ancestry, and the remaining samples had ancestry linking them to Greece, Syria, Lebanon, and other regions in the Eastern Mediterranean and Middle East.

The study employed advanced technology, including identifying individuals from imperial Roman cemeteries who did not grow up in Rome based on isotopes in their teeth, reflecting the water they consumed during their youth.[6]

Increased Y-DNA Diversity Parallels Fall of Rome

A Y-Chromosome, or Y-DNA, as the reader may recall from chapter one of this volume, is the gene passed unchanged from father to son through generations. While this gene does not determine physical appearance (that responsibility lies with other genes, termed "autosomal DNA"), Y-DNA does cluster by geographic region. This property allows Y-DNA to pinpoint the region of origin for a particular gene or to establish a "family tree."

The 2019 genetic study indicated that during the Iron Age and the founding of the Roman Republic, a span from 900 to 27 BC, the male population of Rome consisted of three primary Y-DNA Haplogroups. These are typical of a European population of that era: R-M269 (R1b1a2), which denoted the "Steppe-ancestry," or Indo-European group; and J-M12 (J2b) and T-L208 (T1a1a), representing the "Old European" ancestry, or Anatolian farmers.[7]

The samples from the Imperial Period of Roman history unveiled a marked increase in racial diversity, suggesting a substantial influx of males from various parts of the Empire. These Y-Chromosomes, in addition to the original three mentioned earlier, included: R1a, J1, E1b, and E-V12 (E1b1b1a1a1). The last haplogroup appears frequently across present-day North Africa, especially in Egypt (up to 74.5%), but at minimal frequency in the Levant, Anatolia, and Mediterranean Europe.[8]

The E-V12 haplogroup originated in North Africa and "dispersed to southern Europe through trans-Mediterranean migrations."[9]

Increased mtDNA Diversity Parallels Rome's Fall

mtDNA, like a Y-Chromosome, is the gene that is passed unchanged from mother to daughter through the generations. Similarly to Y-Chromosomes, mtDNA clusters by geographic area and is an indication of the region from which it originated. The 2019 study analyzed mtDNA in Roman history and found that increased diversity—and therefore increased geographic origins—paralleled the fall of

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[6] "Stanford researchers lay out first genetic history of Rome," *Stanford News,* Stanford University, Nov. 7, 2019.

[7] "Inference of Y DNA haplogroups" section in Supplementary Materials, pp. 9–12, in "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., *Science,* 8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.

[8] *Ibid.*

[9] *Ibid.*

Rome. For the samples of ancient remains dating from the era of the Iron Age and the Roman Republic (900 BC to 27 BC), scientists identified five mtDNA haplogroups: H, I, K, U, and T.[10]

ROMAN GODDESS 140 AD, RECONSTRUCTED

Above left: A marble insert head from a statue of Venus or Minerva, complete with traces of paint on the eyebrows, eyes, hair, and brow. The flesh is stained pink. Dated to circa 140 AD, it was found on the Esquiline Hill, Rome. (British Museum, London.) Above right, a cast of the same bust reconstructed using the colors found on the original. (Ashmolean Museum, Oxford.)

Haplogroups H, K, U, and T are all of European origin. The mtDNA haplogroup I is primarily found in Africa.[11a]

For the samples from the era of Imperial Rome (27 BC to 300 AD), the scientists identified ten mtDNA haplogroups in the studied remains: H, K, U, T, J, D, HV, R, R0a2j (R0), and X.[11b] The mtDNA haplogroups J, D, HV, and R originate from the Middle East, while X is of East Asian origin. The R0a2j mtDNA haplogroup originates from Africa.

For the samples from the era termed "Late Antiquity" (300 AD to 700 AD), the scientists identified nine mtDNA haplogroups in the studied remains: H, K, U, T, J, HV, I, R30, and L.[11c]

The R30 mtDNA haplogroup originates from Africa. One out of 10 individuals at Vagnari in southern Italy had an L haplogroup. The L mtDNA haplogroup also originates from Africa.

For the samples from the Medieval and Early Modern period in Italy, scientists identified eight mtDNA haplogroups in the studied remains: H, T, U, K, HV, J, I, and N.[11d]

Of these mtDNA haplogroups, HV, J, and N originate from the Middle East, while the I mtDNA haplogroup originates from Africa. This marked increase—a doubling—in the number of mtDNA haplogroups illustrates how Rome's population became more racially diverse from the early Republic onward. This diversity resulted directly from mass immigration, either through conventional migration or the importation of slaves, into Rome.

Medieval period and onward (700-1700 CE)

Significantly, the 2019 study discovered that after the fall of Rome and in the period leading up to the medieval era, the average ancestry of the Italian samples shifted markedly toward mainland Europe. In the period of Roman history known as "Late Antiquity," just before and after the fall of Rome, the Y-Chromosome composition of Rome's male population consisted of all previously mentioned Y-chromosomes and an increased frequency of the I1 (I-M253) haplogroup. This haplogroup is common in present-day northern Europe (with a 25-40% frequency in Scandinavia) and represents the Germanic tribes used as mercenaries in Roman armies, the Germanic tribes that led the final military assault on Rome, and the Germanic Lombards who settled in northern Italy after Rome's collapse.

Their data indicated that on average, Italians of the medieval period had about 41% Germanic ancestry. This shift back to a more European population is attributed to two factors:

First, the Roman Empire divided in two, and the eastern empire's capital, Constantinople (now Istanbul, Turkey), attracted a large number of migrants away from Rome, which became relatively

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[10] "Inference of mitochondrial DNA haplogroups" section in Supplementary Materials, pp. 7–9, in "Ancient Rome: A genetic crossroads of Europe and the Mediterranean," Antonio, M. L., *Science*, 8 Nov 2019, Vol 366, Issue 6466, pp. 708–714.

[11a–11d] *Ibid.*

ROMAN EMPRESS WHO USED BLONDE WIGS

Valeria Messalina was the third wife of Emperor Claudius. She was famous for her alleged sexual appetite and her blonde wig, which, according to many records, allowed her to work in a brothel in secret. The Roman use of blonde wigs, derived from the inhabitants of Germania, became very widespread. Many emperors, including Caracalla, were known for this habit.

less significant by comparison. Second, epidemics and invasions diminished Rome's population to around 100,000 individuals, a number easily influenced by the invading Germanics who introduced more European ancestry.

As the 2019 study's summary report concluded, "Rome gradually lost its strong genetic link to the Eastern Mediterranean and Middle East. By medieval times, city residents again genetically resembled European populations."[12]

The Imperial Roman Craze for Blond Wigs

The rapid overwhelming of the original inhabitants of Rome reached such levels that many Roman writers noted the trend of Romans purchasing blond wigs to cover their dark hair.

These wigs, made from real blond hair, were purchased from Germany and transported to Rome. Ovid detailed this practice, stating, "Now Germany will send you captive tresses; You will be saved by the gift of a conquered nation."[13] Juvenal wrote in detail about Messalina, the wife of Emperor Claudius (who reigned from 41–54 AD), in this regard, telling of how Messalina, put on a blonde wig to disguise herself to visit houses of ill repute: "Hear what the Emperor Claudius had to put up with. As soon as his wife thought that he was asleep, this imperial whore put on the hood she wore at night, determined to prefer a cheap pad to the royal bed, and left the house with one female slave only. No, hiding her black hair in a yellow wig she entered the brothel, warm with its old patchwork quilts and her empty cell, her very own."[14]

The esteemed 1911 *Encyclopædia Britannica* added: "The fashionable ladies of Rome were much addicted to false hair, and we learn from Ovid (Amores, i. 14.45) and Martial (v. 68) that the golden hair imported from Germany was most favoured. Juvenal (vi. 120) shows us Messalina assuming a yellow wig for her visits to places of ill-fame, and the scholiast on the passage says that the yellow wig was characteristic of courtesans ... Women continued to have wigs of different colours as part of their ordinary wardrobe, and Faustina, wife of Marcus Aurelius, is said to have had several hundred. An amusing development of this is occasionally found in portrait busts, e.g. that of Plautilla in the Louvre, in which the hair is made movable, so that by changing the wig of the statue from time to time it should never be out of fashion."[15]

Pliny even described various methods employed to dye hair blond. Moreover, Romans often used sapa, or lead acetate, as a skin lightener to achieve paler complexions. Unfortunately, they inadvertently poisoned themselves in the process.

Emperor Caracalla was renowned for wearing a blond wig, as detailed in the work of the Roman historian Herodian, who wrote:

"He grew especially fond of the Germans in those regions; after gaining their friendship, he entered into alliances with them, and selected for his personal bodyguard the strongest and most handsome young men. He frequently put off the Roman cloak and donned German dress, appearing in the short, silver-embroidered cloaks which they customarily wear, augmented by a yellow wig with the locks arranged in the German style."[16]

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[12] "Stanford researchers lay out first genetic history of Rome," *Stanford News,* Stanford University, Nov. 7, 2019.

[13] Ovid, *Amores,* i. 14.45.

[14] Juvenal, *Satire VI*, "The Ways of Women," lines 596–600

[15] "Wig," *Encyclopædia Britannica,* Volume 28, Horace Everett Hooper, 1910, 1911.

It is noteworthy that the ancient Romans often regarded those with darker complexions with skepticism. The Roman proverb *hic niger es, hunc tu, Romane, caveato* ("He is black; beware of him, Roman") is documented by Horace as a prevalent sentiment among the Romans of that era.[17]

Racial Mixing as Noted by Roman Writers

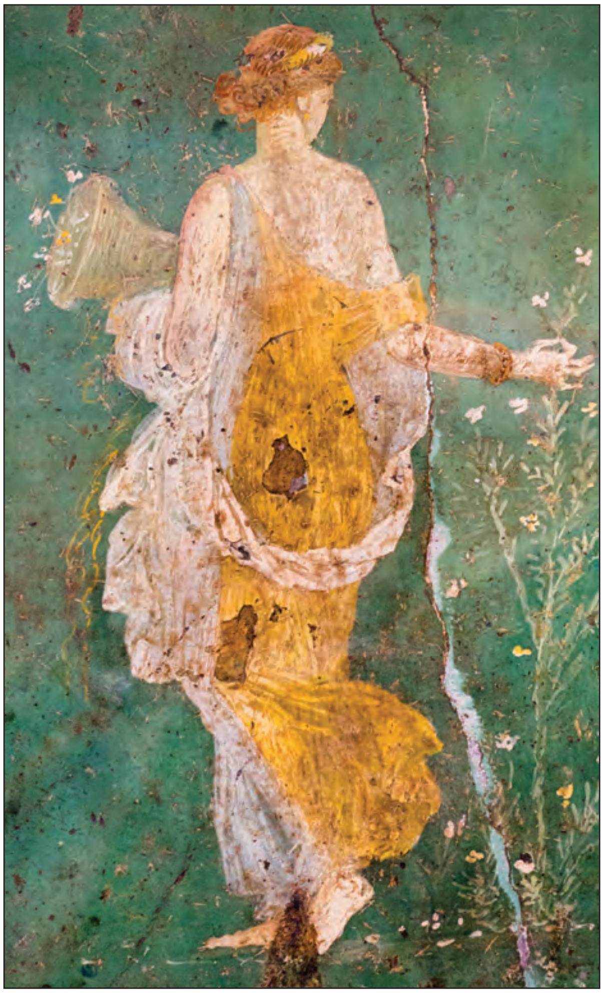
In *Satire VI,* Juvenal, while discussing the advisability or otherwise of abortions, warns husbands that their wives might bear mulatto children: "With thine own hand give thy wife the potion whatever is to be for did she choose to bear her leaping children in her womb thou wouldst, perchance, become the sire of an Ethiop, a blackamoor would soon be your sole heir."[18]

Martial, writing about the misconduct of Roman wives, mentions a Roman woman who bore her husband seven children, none of whom were of his race. Martial says: "One of them, with wooly hair, like a Moor, seems to be the son of Santra, the cook. The second, with a flat nose and thick lips, is the image of Pannicus, the wrestler . . . of the two daughters, one is black . . . and belongs to Crotus, the flute player."[19]

The Roman orator Calpurnius Flaccus (circa second century AD) discussed the concept of "maternal impression"[20] as an explanation for mulatto children.

In his work *De Natus Aethiops*, the white wife of a mulatto child questions, "Tell me then, did I love a Negro?" She affirms she did not and argues that "the element of chance may affect a great deal within the womb." Of the child's color, she remarks, "You see there the skin scorched by an imperfection of the blood."[21]

BLONDE ROMAN, SOUTHERN ITALY, 79 AD



A painting of a blonde Roman woman from the town of Stabiae in southern Italy titled "Primavera." The frescoe was preserved when Stabiae was buried by the explosion of Mount Vesuvius in 70 AD. (National Archaeological Museum, Naples.)

Plutarch narrates the story of a woman who gave birth to a black child and was accused of adultery. However, subsequent investigation revealed that her great grandfather was an Ethiopian.[22]

The Roman scholar Pliny provides another example of mulatto offspring: "One certain example is that of the renowned boxer Nicaeus, born at Byzantium, whose mother was the daughter of adultery with a Negro. Her complexion was no different from that of the others,[23] but her son Nicaeus appeared like his Negro grandfather."[24]

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[16] Herodian of Antioch, *History of the Roman Empire*, 4.7.3.

[17] *Satire*, Horace, i. 4, 85

[18] Juvenal, *Satire III*: "There is no Room in Rome for a Roman", 62.

[19] Martial, *Epigrams* Book VI, 39.

[20] The concept of "maternal impression" posited that mere proximity to an African could result in a white woman bearing a mulatto child. While patently false, this notion was nonetheless debated in various Roman texts

[21] Calpurnius Flaccus, Calpurnius, *De Natus Aethiops*, *Biblioteca Latina*, Vol. 80.

[22] Plutarch, *Moralia, De sera numinis vindicta*, VII, 44.

[23] He means of "other" white women.

[24] Pliny, *Naturalis Historia* VII,12.51.

Emperor Claudian (365–408 AD) expressed disapproval of the racial mixing occurring in North Africa under the "Moor" ("Maur") Gildo, who was appointed as the ruler of the colony of Africa by Emperor Valentinian. Claudian wrote, "When tired of each noblest matron, [Gildo] hands her over to the Moors. These Sidonian mothers, married in Carthage City, must needs be mate with barbarians. He thrusts upon me an Ethiopian son-in-law. This hideous hybrid affects the cradle."[25]

Slavery in the Roman Empire

Rome was, like Classical Greece, a society driven by slavery. The *Encyclopedia Britannica's* "Historians' History of the World," one of the most widely referenced works on world history, emphasizes the effect of slavery on Roman society in the manner presented:

"Slavery was the most determined enemy of that spirit of conservatism and tradition which had been the strength of the Roman race. The slaves did not spring from the soil of Rome, their recollections and affections were elsewhere, and when they became citizens they did not hesitate to welcome foreign customs and to introduce them into the city.

"Whilst the statesmen and leading men wore themselves out in trying to preserve what remained of the ancient spirit and old customs, down below, amongst those classes of the populace which were constantly being recruited from slavery, there was a continual working to destroy it. It was thus that, thanks to this secret and powerful influence, new religions easily spread throughout the empire."[26]

Just as in Classical Greece, there are no accurate records of the number of slaves in Rome. Historians have turned to studying names, geography, and the physical limitations of land and total population size to form estimates.

The renowned historian Professor Tenney Frank, from Johns Hopkins University, in his work *Race Mixture in the Roman Empire,* made these observations: "Therefore, when the urban inscriptions show that seventy per cent of the city slaves and freedmen bear Greek names and that a larger portion of the children who have Latin names have parents of Greek names, this at once implies that the East was the source of most of them, and with that inference Bang's conclusions (Dr. Bang of Germany) entirely agree. In his list of slaves that specify their origin as being outside Italy (during the empire), by far the larger portion came from the Orient, especially from Syria and the provinces of Asia Minor, with some from Egypt and Africa (which for racial classification may be taken with the Orient). Some are from Spain and Gaul, but a considerable portion of these came originally from the East. Very few slaves are recorded from the Alpine and Danube provinces, while Germans rarely appear, except among the imperial bodyguard.

"Bang remarks that Europeans were of greater service to the empire as soldiers than servants. This is largely true, but, as Strach has commented, the more robust European war-captives were apt to be chosen for the grueling work in the mines and in industry, and largely they have vanished from the records. Such slaves were probably also the least productive of the class; and this, in turn, helps to explain the strikingly Oriental aspect of the new population."[27]

Thus, slaves were drawn from all parts of the Empire, but those who left a lasting impact were from the non-white or racially mixed regions of the Empire. Their numbers, according to estimates, were staggering. A 2005 calculation published by the University of Cambridge, UK, based on a thorough geographic survey and recorded overall population estimates, stated that at least one-third of Rome's population were slaves and that between two and four million slaves were imported into Rome during the period 200 BC to 1 AD alone.[28]

Attempts to Increase Roman Population Fail

As early as 131 BC, the Roman censor, Metellus, called for a law compelling Roman citizens to

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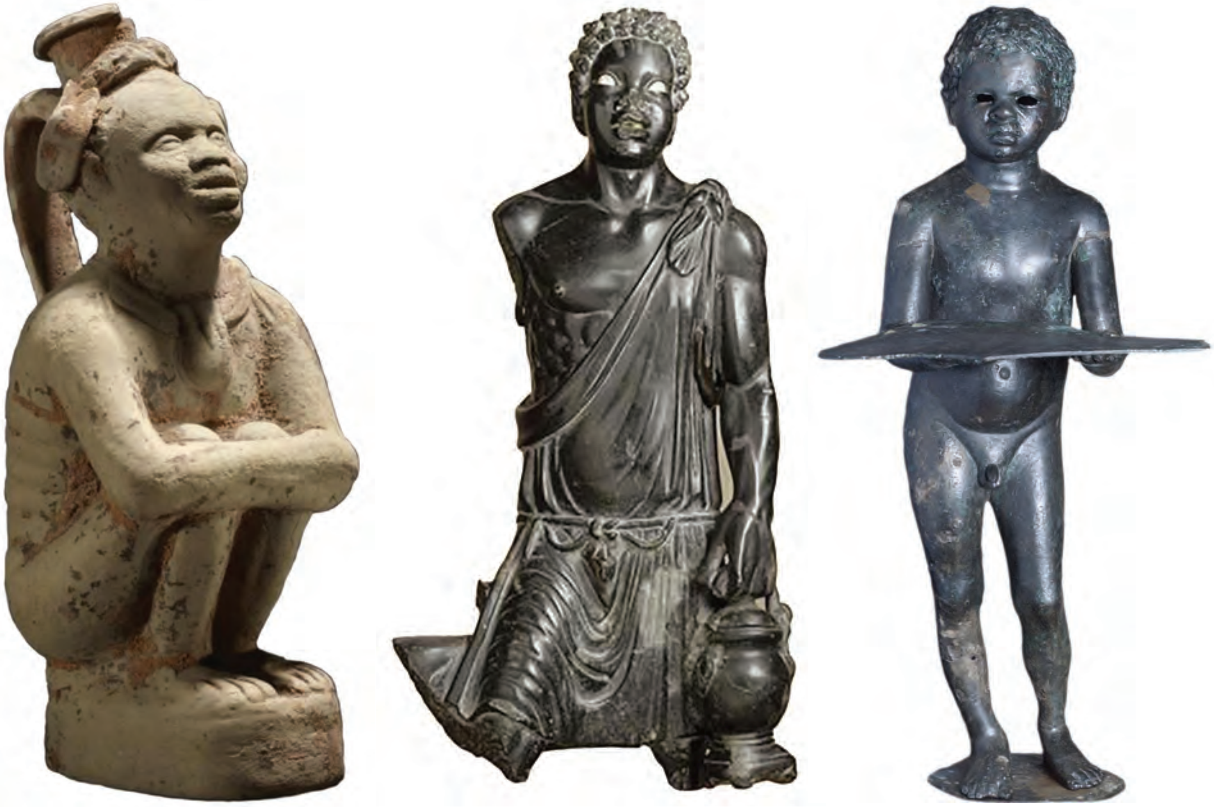
[25] Claudian, *De Bello Gildonico* I, 189.

[26] *The Historians' History of the World, A Comprehensive Narrative of the Rise and Development of Nations from the Earliest Times as recorded by over Two Thousand of the Great Writers of All Ages. Edited with the assistance of a Distinguished Board of Advisers and Contributors,* Henry Smith Williams, LL.D. London & New York: Encyclopædia Britannica, 1904, 5th ed., 1926.

[27] "Race Mixture in the Roman Empire," Tenney Frank, *American Historical Review,* 1916, volume 21, pages 689–708.

[28] "Human Mobility in Roman Italy, II: The Slave Population", *The Journal of Roman Studies* Vol. 95 (2005), pp. 64–79, Published By: Society for the Promotion of Roman Studies, Cambridge University Press.

THE WIDESPREAD USE OF AFRICAN SLAVES IN ALL PARTS OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE :



AFRICAN WITH "FOR SALE" SIGN, ROME

AFRICAN BATH HOUSE SLAVE, CARIA (ASIA MINOR)

AFRICAN LAMP HOLDING SLAVE HISPANIA

Above from left to right: An African slave with a "for sale" sign hanging around his neck. On this sign, called a titulus, details about the slave, including his origin, would be displayed for prospective purchasers. This piece is from Rome and dates to the 1st century AD. (British Museum, London.) Center: A statue of an African slave, dressed to work in a Roman bath and holding a flask of perfumed oil, was discovered in the ancient baths of Aphrodisias (present-day Turkey). Dated to the late 2nd century AD. African slaves were frequently employed as aides in the Roman baths of that era. (Louvre Museum, Paris.) Right: A bronze statue of an African slave boy holding a tray on which lamps and the instruments for lighting them were placed. Dated from the 1st to 2nd century AD, it was found in Tarragona, Spain. (Tarragona National Archaeological Museum, Tarragona.)

marry. Julius Caesar, Augustus, Nero, and Trajan all offered prizes for Roman citizens who had more than four children.

An overt attempt to preserve the Roman bloodline was made by Octavian Augustus. He issued several decrees prescribing heavy penalties for celibacy and for marriages with slaves or the descendants of slaves.

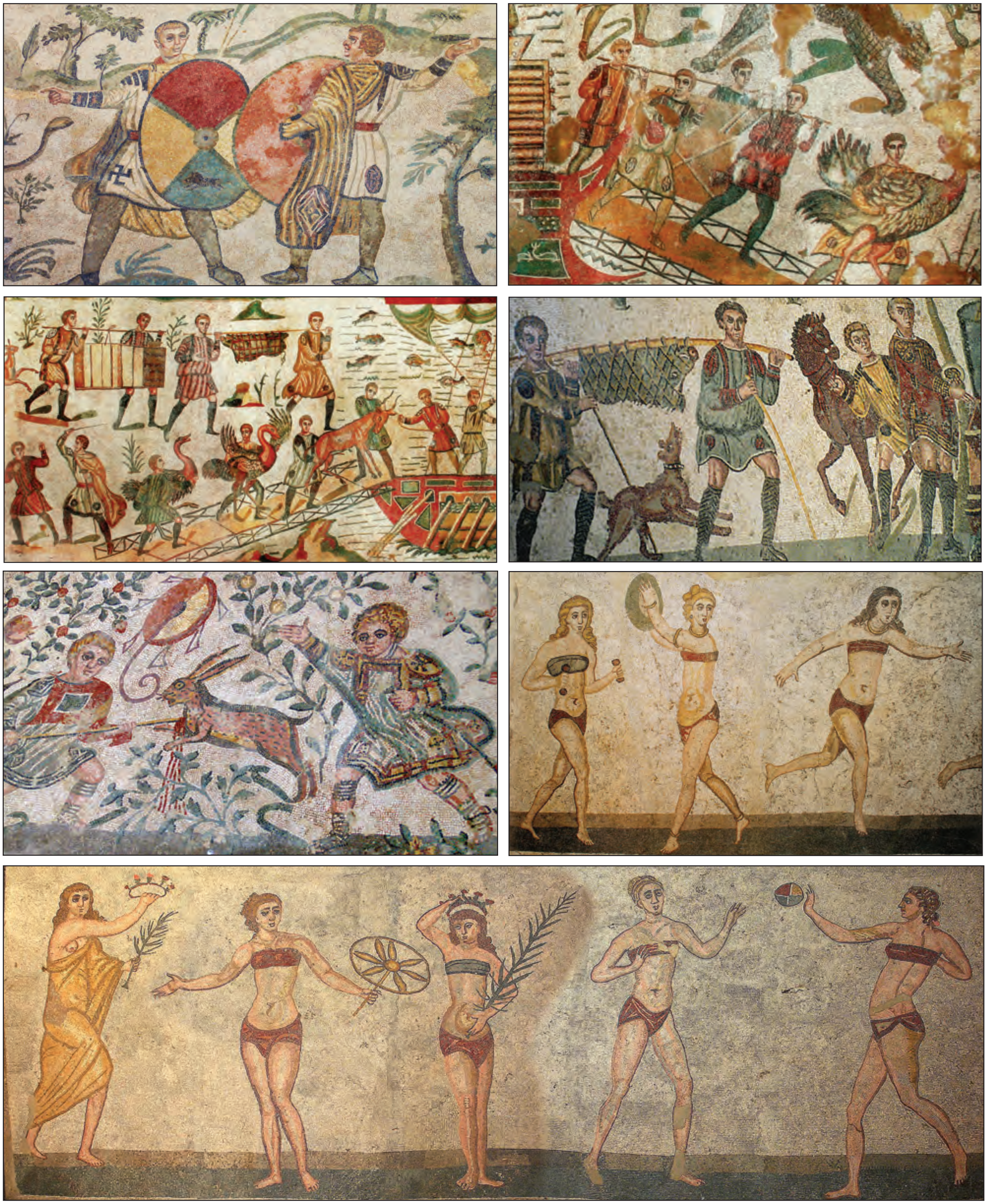
Another law by Octavian dictated that all Romans between the ages of twenty-five and sixty must marry—and hopefully produce children. Finally, in the year 9 AD, Octavian announced tax concessions for Roman families with three or more children. Unmarried individuals were barred from public games and could not receive inheritances, while childless married people could only receive half of any inheritance due to them. All these measures failed during Octavian's lifetime.

Roman Policy Causes Growth of Non-Roman Peoples

In continental Europe, the Pax Romana saw the benefits of Roman society bear fruit. The population increased, and the Roman penchant for organization was swiftly adopted by the European peasantry in their regions. This process was enhanced by the Roman system of government, which relied

ANCIENT WALL FRESCOES REVEAL ORIGINAL ROMAN RACIAL TYPES IN SICILY

An indication of the racial makeup of the original Roman population can be gained from the famous frescoes discovered in the Villa Romana del Casale in Sicily. Dating from before the 4th century AD, the frescoes portray a number of different types, ranging from blonde and brunette men and women to slaves and lower classes with darker complexions. (All frescoes form the Villa Romana del Casale, Piazza Armerina, Sicily).



on a few Roman administrators arriving in a region, and then enlisting locals to assist with the administration and management of the territory in return for offices of state. In this manner, the Romans "Romanized" many of their subject territories.

While this did not affect the racial balance in Gaul and other parts of western and eastern Europe (central Europe or Germania remained forever beyond Rome's influence), it had significant effects in the regions to the east and south, which were primarily occupied by nonwhite peoples.

This policy was also employed in other parts of the Roman Empire—with dire consequences for Rome in the Mediterranean territories of North Africa, Egypt, and the Middle East. In these territories, vast numbers of the racially mixed populations (comprising white, Semitic, Arabic, and Asian mixtures) enjoyed the benefits of Roman civilization as long as the Romans themselves existed. This resulted in a notable increase in population due to improved living standards, and thus the Romans inadvertently contributed to the nonwhite racial influx that would eventually overcome them from the south and the east.

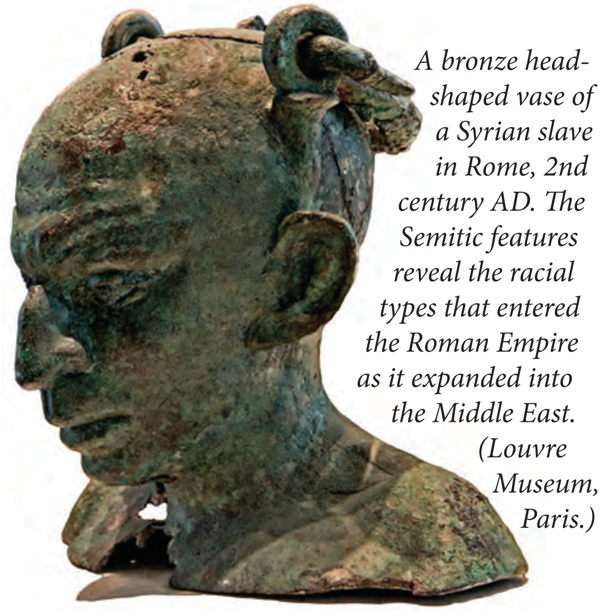
Elections to the Senate Expanded to Provinces

The Emperor Claudius (reigned AD 41–54) was the first to expand the senatorial order by admitting men from the provinces, specifically from Gaul, into the Roman Senate. This move was controversial in its time because the Senate had traditionally been an exclusive body reserved for Romans from Italy. Claudius' decision was motivated by a mix of practicality and politics. He believed that the inclusion of leading men from the provinces would bind those regions more closely to Rome.

The men from the provinces who were admitted to the Senate typically came from the local elite and had already demonstrated loyalty to the Roman state. Once a provincial was admitted to the senatorial order, he would have the same rights and responsibilities as any senator from Italy. This meant they could participate in senatorial debates, vote on issues, and potentially hold magistracies.

Over time, as more and more provincials were admitted to the Senate, the ethnic composition of this body began to change, reflecting the increasingly cosmopolitan nature of the empire. Eventually, original Romans became a minority in that body as well.

"SYRIAN" RACIAL TYPE IN ROME, 200 AD



A bronze head-shaped vase of a Syrian slave in Rome, 2nd century AD. The Semitic features reveal the racial types that entered the Roman Empire as it expanded into the Middle East. (Louvre Museum, Paris.)

Rome's Fate Sealed—Caracalla's Edict of 212 AD

The Emperor Caracalla (reigned 211–217 AD) legitimized the displacement of the original Roman people with his 212 AD edict granting Roman citizenship to all free males within the empire. This proclamation overturned centuries of Roman law, as early Roman law had made provision for the maintenance of racial homogeneity by stipulating that individuals could only be citizens if both their parents were Roman citizens. Those who married non-Roman citizens could not claim Roman citizenship for their children.

This was a direct method of biologically excluding all foreign nationals, especially those of mixed descent, from obtaining Roman citizenship. Caracalla's edict meant that this last legal provision designed to prevent the dilution of Roman blood had been abandoned.

Roman Family Names Disappear

Professor Tenney Frank, in his *Race Mixture in the Roman Empire,* revealed how native Romans vanished through an analysis he conducted of name records in Rome:

"By combining epigraphical and literary references, a fairly full history of the noble families can be procured, and this reveals a startling inability of such families to perpetuate themselves," Frank

JEWS: FROM HATED AND DEFEATED ENEMY TO LEADING CITIZEN OF ROME

These images illustrate how the racial makeup of Rome changed during the Imperial period. Above left: Roman soldiers carry Jewish treasures, including a menorah, seized during the Roman-Jewish Wars of 68–73 AD. This scene is from the Arch of Titus, erected to commemorate his victory over the Jews. Above right: A sarcophagus from 300 AD in Rome displays the menorah combined with classical Roman scenes. This highlights the extent to which various peoples became assimilated into the city. Within 350 years, the Jews transitioned from being a defeated and despised enemy of Rome to becoming wealthy citizens.

wrote, adding that "in Caesar's day of forty-five patricians, only one of whom is represented by posterity when Hadrian came to power. The Aemilsi, Fabii, Claudii. Manlii, Valerii, and all the rest, with the exception of Comelii, have disappeared. Augustus and Claudius raised twenty-five families to the patricate, and all but six disappear before Nerva's reign.

"Of the families of nearly four hundred senators recorded in 65 AD under Nero, all trace of a half is lost by Nerva's day, a generation later. And the records are so complete that these statistics may be assumed to represent with a fair degree of accuracy the disappearance of the male stock of the families in question."[29]

The Jews in Rome 100 BC: Symbol of Middle Eastern Immigration

The first Jewish inhabitants in Rome likely arrived as envoys or traders. By the end of the Republic, there was a significant Jewish community, partly because of the arrival of Jewish slaves brought to Rome after Roman conquests in the eastern Mediterranean, especially after the capture of Jerusalem by Pompey in 63 BC.

They primarily resided across the Tiber in the Trastevere district, forming a "Jewish Quarter" which contained the first synagogues to be built in Europe. It was not entirely peaceful; according to the historian Suetonius, who wrote in his *Lives of the Twelve Caesars* during the reign of Claudius (49 AD) that "because the Jews at Rome caused continuous disturbances at the instigation of Chrestus, he [Claudius] expelled them from the city."[30]

The identity of Chrestus remains unclear, but regardless, the expulsion was temporary. By the reign of Nero, a Jewish community had been re-established in Rome.

After the capture of Jerusalem in 70 AD, additional Jewish slaves were brought to Rome. By the end of the 1st century AD, however, many descendants of these slaves had been freed and became part of a free Jewish community in Rome. They eventually grew to be a significant part of the city, and the still-maintained Jewish quarter of Rome stands as testament to their presence in Imperial Rome—and to the large number of Middle Easterners who migrated to the city, as confirmed by the genetic evidence presented above.

The Fall of Rome: A Progression of Events

The eventual fall of Rome resulted from a series of events stemming from the weakening of the central state. However, these events, as critical as they were and as described below, were merely symptoms and not the fundamental cause of the collapse of the Western Roman Empire. As mentioned earlier, the Roman Empire weakened and was internally dismantled.

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[29] "Race Mixture in the Roman Empire," Tenney Frank, *American Historical Review*, 1916, volume 21, pages 689–708.

[30] Suetonius, *Lives of the Twelve Caesars,* "Claudius," 25.4.

The original founding population was absorbed by the masses of people they conquered: many were of a similar racial background, but a vast number were racially different. The homogeneous nature of the founding Roman state rapidly transformed into a heterogeneous, multi-racial state. This inherent instability and vulnerability—common in nations made up of diverse racial groups—was the primary reason for the Empire's demise.

The Crisis of the Third Century Heralds the Decline of the Western Roman Empire

The "Crisis of the Third Century" (235–284 AD) marked the decline of the Western Roman Empire. Internal weaknesses, stemming from the heterogeneous nature of Roman society, hindered its administration, particularly its capacity to raise taxes and recruit Roman soldiers for the legions. This led to widespread instability and economic downturn. Consequently, Romans witnessed the rapid rise and fall of about 26 emperors (excluding several rival claimants and usurpers) within a span of 50 years.

HONORIUS MOVES ROMAN CAPITAL TO RAVENNA

The Roman Emperor Honorius (reigned 395–423) was the youngest son of Emperor Theodosius I who inherited what remained of the Western Roman Empire while his brother Arcadius ruled the eastern half. Honorius was initially too young to rule effectively and was placed under the regency of the Romanized Germanic general Alaric. With the racial chaos now reaching epidemic proportions, his reign predictably chaotic. He moved the capital of the Western Empire to Rome, leaving Rome to be sacked in 410 AD by marauding Germanics.

Moreover, the Empire encountered numerous threats and invasions, including relentless Germanic incursions along all frontiers. The Visigoths posed threats along the north-eastern borders. Meanwhile, a smaller tribe, historically known as the Herulians, penetrated the Balkans, pillaging numerous cities, including Byzantium, Thessalonica (which, despite resistance, suffered greatly), and finally Athens in 368 AD.

Following these assaults, the Roman Emperor Claudius II (often dubbed Claudius Gothicus due to his triumphs over the Goths) successfully repelled the invaders in multiple battles, reclaiming parts of Roman lands. However, the Visigoths persisted as a challenge on Rome's north-eastern frontier. When the Huns emerged early in the 4th century AD, the Visigoths found refuge within Roman boundaries. Yet, this provision offered only brief relief from Roman-Gothic disputes. The animosity resurged at the Battle of Adrianople in 378 AD, where the Romans faced a crushing defeat.

Eastern Roman Empire Invades Western Roman Empire, 394 AD

The turmoil of the era became evident when the Western Roman Empire was invaded by forces dispatched by the Eastern Roman emperor in 394 AD. This conflict was initiated by a Germanic Frankish General in the Roman army named Arbogast.

Leveraging his position as the commander of the armies in Gaul, he elevated a new emperor, Eugenius, to power in 393 AD. With Eugenius primarily serving as a figurehead, the true authority lay with Arbogast.

Theodosius I, the Emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire and a fervent Christian, opposed Eugenius' efforts to placate certain pagan senators in Rome. He subsequently declared Eugenius an unauthorized ruler. This animosity culminated in a military showdown between the two Empire divisions, climaxing at the Battle of the Frigidus in September 394 AD. The confrontation took place near the Vipava River (present-day Slovenia), and resulted in the defeat of Eugenius and Arbogast. The latter committed suicide, and Eugenius was captured and executed.

Theodosius I died a few months afterward in 395 AD. His demise signaled the definitive division of the Eastern and Western Roman Empires, with each segment governed by one of his offspring.

Ravenna Replaces Rome as the Capital

With the dawn of the 5th century AD, the Western Roman Empire began to disintegrate under the weight of the myriad threats it faced. The overwhelmingly Middle Eastern makeup of the population of the city of Rome must have finally also become too difficult to control, and in 402 AD, the Emperor Honorius announced that the capital of the empire was moving to the northern Italian city of Ravenna.

Several strategic considerations influenced this decision. Ravenna was encircled by marshlands, offering natural protection against invaders. Furthermore, its closeness to the Adriatic Sea ensured it could be conveniently resupplied and bolstered by sea, especially during sieges or invasions. Regardless of these functional reasons, the implication was unmistakable: Rome, the eternal city, no longer held its preeminent status in the West.

The Vandals Breach Rome's Borders, 406 AD

The Vandals, another Germanic tribe, had been gradually migrating westward for centuries. However, the emergence of the Huns in the early 5th century AD forced them further south and westward. Consequently, by 406 AD, the Vandals, along with the Suebi Germans and remnants of the Alans, traversed the Rhine River, penetrating the Roman Empire.

By this juncture, the weakened Romans could not repel this Germanic incursion. In the ensuing years, the Vandals journeyed through Gaul and into the Iberian Peninsula, establishing settlements there.

Roman Legions Depart from Britain, 407 AD

Reacting to the perceived oversight by the central imperial administration and pressing external threats, the Roman military in Britain proclaimed a rank-and-file soldier, named Constantine (subsequently referred to as Constantine III), as emperor in 407 AD. To fortify his standing and address the Germanic challenges in Gaul, Constantine III crossed over to the continent with the remaining Roman legions based in Britain. This effectively marked the end of the official Roman military presence in Britain.

Though Constantine III initially enjoyed victories in Gaul, his tenure was short. He was recognized as co-emperor by the legitimate Western Roman Emperor Honorius but eventually was captured and executed in 411 AD. After the departure of Constantine III and his legions, Roman Britain became increasingly isolated, and by 410 AD, Honorius reportedly sent a letter to the cities of Britain advising them to see to their own defense, marking the effective end of Roman Britain.

Alaric Becomes King of the Goths

In the interim, the Goths selected a new king, Alaric. He had previously served as a general in the Roman army and had even assisted the empire against other groups. However, he also advocated for greater autonomy and rights for his people.

In Rome, internal turmoil persisted. Power struggles among the Roman leadership were evident, including disputes between the Eastern and Western halves of the empire and religious conflicts. The primary religious disagreements pertained to Arianism, which the Goths followed, and Nicene Christianity.

As a consequence, Rome did not pay sufficient attention to the increasing power of the Goths. Eventually, dissatisfied with the terms offered by the Romans and motivated by his ambitions, Alaric initiated a series of campaigns in the Balkans and subsequently invaded Italy.

Rome Dependent on German Mercenaries

At this advanced stage of Roman history, the indigenous Roman populace constituted only a minuscule portion of the capital city's inhabitants. Incapable of providing recruits for the legions and with the majority of Rome's residents reluctant to join the military, the authorities found themselves relying almost exclusively on Germanic mercenaries.

Although foreign auxiliaries had always served alongside the Romans, and over the centuries had even been integrated into the legions, Roman armies, up until the 2nd century AD, typically had Roman commanders and a significant number of Roman recruits.

This scenario underwent a complete transformation. The Western Roman Empire grew increasingly reliant on Germanic generals to safeguard the empire. These generals frequently exerted substantial political influence behind the scenes.

Stilicho the Vandal Holds Power in the West

One of the most important of these Germanics was Stilicho, who was of Vandal descent—an indication of just how reliant Rome had become on its former enemies for its defense. Stilicho's mixed heritage sometimes became a point of contention among his rivals, who used it to question his loyalty to Rome.

Stilicho initially served under the Eastern Roman Emperor Theodosius I and played a key role in several campaigns, especially against the Goths. After Theodosius I died in 395 AD, his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius, ascended the thrones of the Eastern and Western Roman Empires, respectively. Given that Honorius was only a child at the time, Stilicho became his guardian and the de facto ruler of the Western Roman Empire.

During his regency, Stilicho faced numerous threats, both external and internal. He engaged in battles with the Visigoths under Alaric on several occasions. Although he sometimes managed to negotiate and halt Alaric's advances, he never fully defeated him.

However, Stilicho's power made him a target for political rivals. In 408 AD, rumors began circulating that Stilicho intended to place his own son, Eucherius, on the throne of the Eastern Empire. These allegations, whether true or not, provided the ammunition his adversaries sought. While Stilicho was away from Ravenna, the capital, a coup was orchestrated. Upon his return, he was arrested and executed. His family was also targeted, and the purge affected many of his associates and supporters.

The Massacre of the Germans, 408 AD

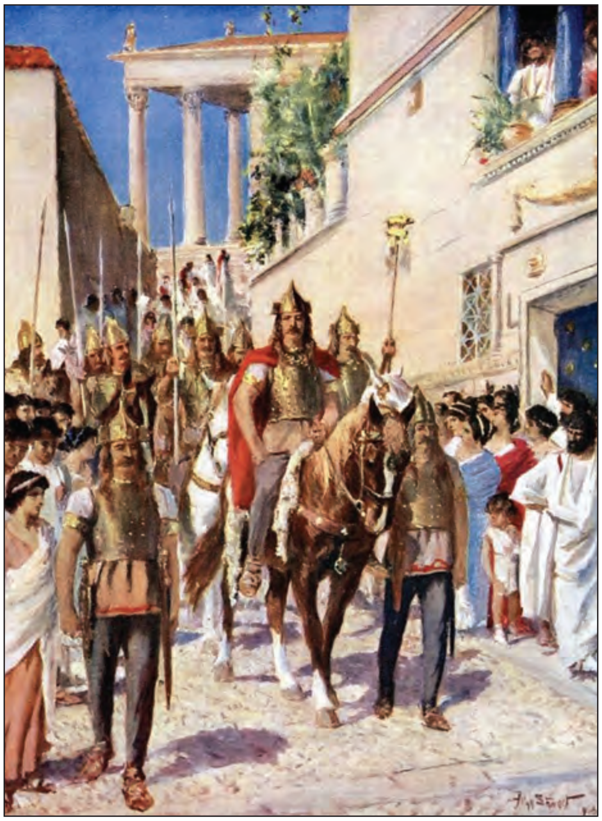
At the time of his execution, Stilicho had been negotiating with Alaric. Stilicho's policy often favored appeasement, aiming to evade direct confrontation. This strategy evaporated in the chaos following his death, resulting in a surge of anti-Gothic sentiment in Rome.

The Roman citizens, officials, and military, possibly due to fears of potential internal threats and presumed affiliations between the Gothic foederati (allied troops) and Alaric, initiated a massacre of the foederati's families—including thousands of women and children.

This massacre had immediate repercussions. Numerous surviving Gothic soldiers joined Alaric, desiring retribution for their slain families. For two years, Alaric led an aggrieved army, comprising his troops, Stilicho's forces, and various Germanics, throughout the Italian peninsula, seeking revenge for the slain Gothic families. During this period, the rampaging Germans inflicted significant losses on the local populace.

Eventually, Alaric besieged Rome once more, compelling the city's slave traders to free approximately forty thousand German captives.

ALARIC ENTERS ROME, 410 AD



King Alaric of the Goths entered Rome in triumph in 410 AD. The seizure of the city and its subsequent sacking is regarded as marking the end of the Western Roman Empire, although it had in fact ended much earlier with the extinction of the last real Romans under a flood of racial-aliens.

Goths Sack Rome in 410 AD

Alaric's avenging army finally sacked the city of Rome on August 24, 410 AD. Many historians mark that date as the official end of the Western Roman Empire, although the last true Romans had long since vanished.

While the sack lasted only three days and was relatively restrained—with many Christian sites spared due to the Visigoths' Arian Christian faith—the event was symbolic and deeply affected the Roman world. Rome, which had not been captured for nearly 800 years, had fallen.

The Vandals Seize the North African Provinces

In 429 AD, driven by internal disputes in Spain and possibly invited by a Roman rebel or sensing an opportunity in the Roman political disputes, the Vandals, under their king Gaiseric, led his people (estimated to be around 80,000, including non-combatants) from Iberia south across the Strait of Gibraltar into North Africa.

Once in North Africa, the Vandals and their allies, the Alans, embarked on a campaign against the Roman territories there. Within a few years, the Vandals breached Roman defenses, and in 439 AD, they captured the city of Carthage, which became their capital and main base.

From Carthage, the Vandals established a dominant maritime kingdom. They controlled the western Mediterranean and even sacked the city of Rome in 455 AD.

The Hunnish Invasion Draws Rome's Last Gasp

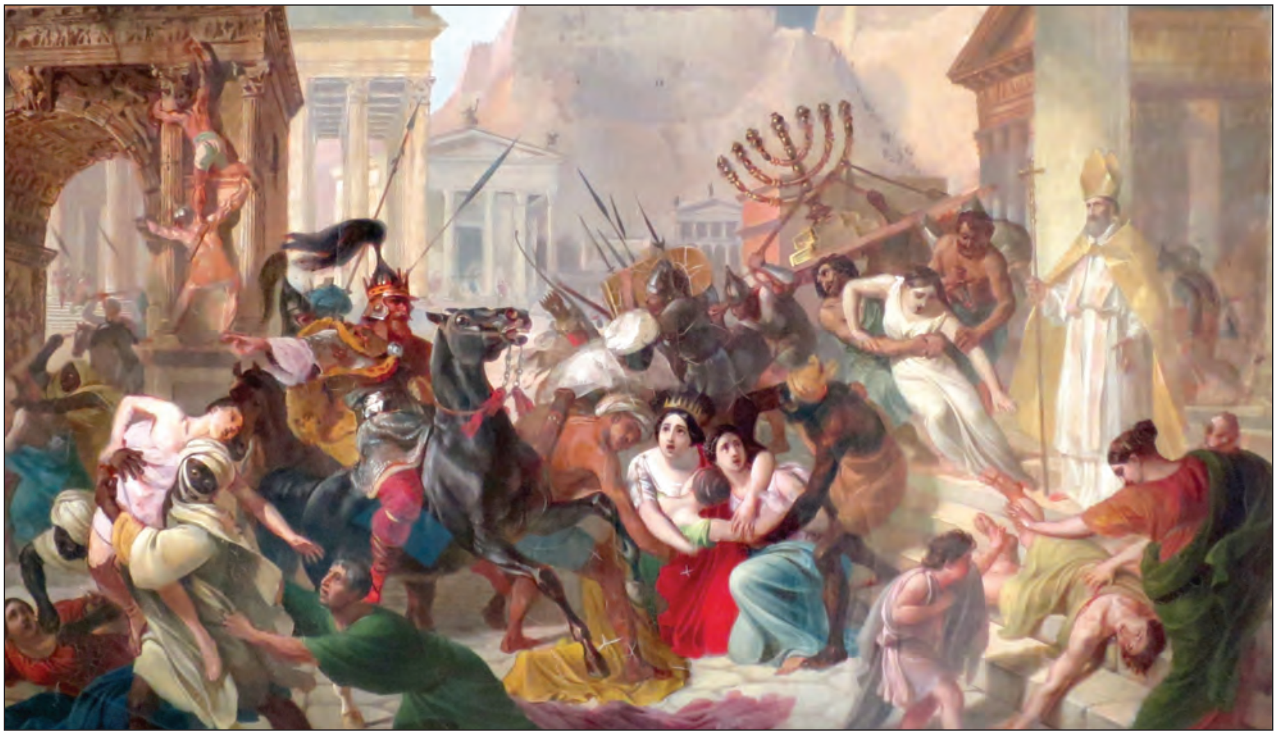
The invasion of Europe by Attila the Hun in 441 AD marked the Western Roman Empire's final chapter. Only with the assistance of the Goths were the Huns ultimately defeated—first at the Battle of the Catalaunian Plains in 451 AD—ensuring that the Western Roman Empire was not entirely overrun. The following year, the renowned Roman legions could not stop Attila's advance into Italy. The Hunnish advance ultimately retreated of its own accord.

Germans Fight over Remains of Western "Empire," 475 AD

After 410 AD, a semblance of an imperial line of rulers of what remained of the Western Roman Empire was maintained. The borders of the Empire had, however, shrunk so significantly that few territories outside of Italy remained under direct Roman rule. Most were semi-independent or, as in the case of the eastern territories, under the control of the Eastern Roman Empire, headquartered in Constantinople.

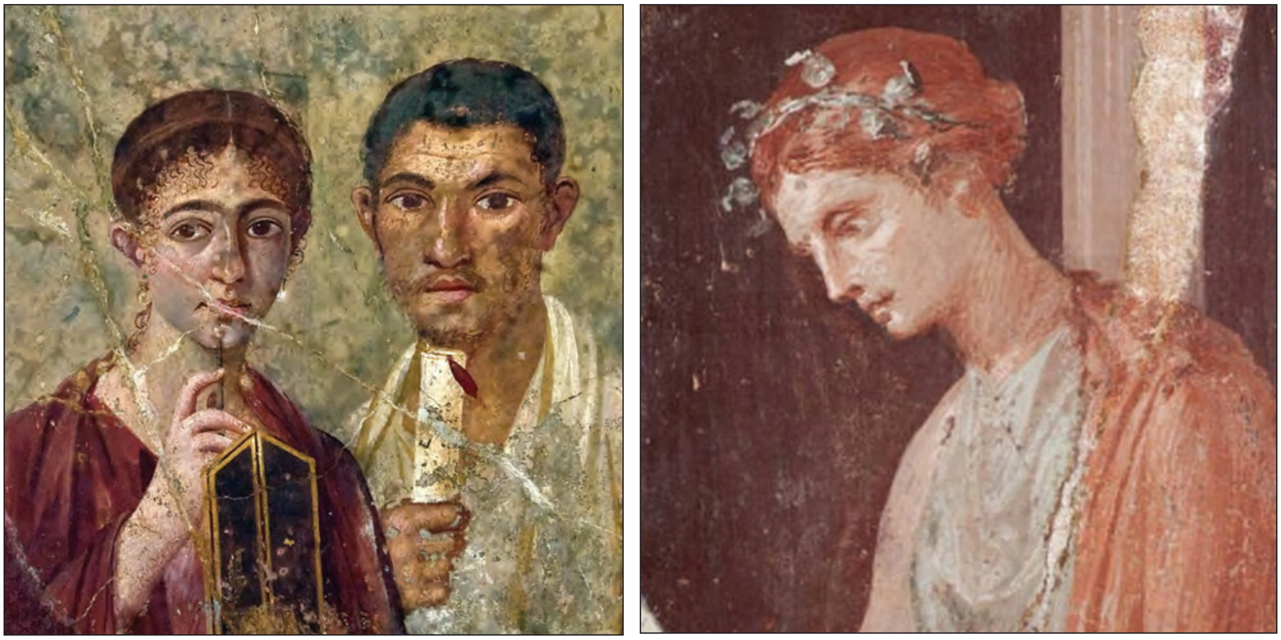
The "emperors" in the West after 410 AD were in reality little more than puppets of the remain-

THE VANDALS SACK ROME, 455 AD



The Vandals, a Germanic tribe that had previously seized the Roman provinces in North Africa, sailed across the Mediterranean Sea in 455 AD and sacked Rome under the leadership of their king, Gaiseric. This painting depicts the significant number of the city's inhabitants who were, by that time, of Middle Eastern and Semitic origin, as evidenced by the prominent Jewish menorah being carried away by the invading troops. (Gaiseric's Invasion of Rome, Karl Bryullov, 1836, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow.)

THE “BAKER OF POMPEII”: THE FACE OF THE FATE OF ROME



The absorption of non-whites into the Roman population and the effects of racial mixing are evident in the face of the “baker of Pompeii, Terentius Neo and his wife, (left) from Pompeii. The fashion at the time was to have one’s portrait painted on the walls of one’s house. The eruption of the volcano Vesuvius preserved many of the houses in Pompeii, including these portraits which date from circa 50 AD. Compare the mixed-race features of the Neos with that of one of their neighbors, a Nordic woman (right), whose house portrait was similarly preserved. Eventually, the “baker” types dominated Roman society. This was the reason why the Roman Empire collapsed: the original Romans were submerged. (National Archaeological Museum, Naples.)

ing military forces, who were almost all Germans of one tribe or another. The second to last of these Germans was Orestes, who held a high rank in the Roman armed forces.

In 475 AD, Orestes managed to depose the then-reigning Emperor Julius Nepos. Orestes, however, did not assume the title of emperor himself. Instead, he placed his young son, Romulus Augustulus, on the throne. Given the boy’s age, Orestes was the de facto ruler of the Western Roman Empire. At the same time, one of the leading Germans in the Roman army, Odoacer, the chief of a group of Scirian and Herulian mercenaries, started a rebellion after Orestes denied their demand for a large parcel of land in Italy. In the subsequent military campaign, Odoacer’s forces captured and executed Orestes near Piacenza in Northern Italy.

Odoacer Declares Himself “King of Italy,” 476 AD

After defeating Orestes, Odoacer moved against Ravenna, where young Romulus Augustulus resided. Odoacer captured the city and, in a relatively merciful gesture, merely deposed the boy-emperor, sending him into a comfortable exile in Campania. Instead of elevating someone else to the title of Western Roman Emperor, Odoacer proclaimed himself “king of Italy” (*Rex Italiae*). He did recognize the suzerainty of the Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Emperor, sending the imperial insignia to Constantinople and nominally submitting to the authority of the Eastern Roman Emperor Zeno.

The deposition of Romulus Augustulus in 476 AD and Odoacer’s assumption of power are traditionally marked as the “fall of the Western Roman Empire.” However, as outlined above, it had vanished a significant time before the events of 476.

The Western Roman Empire was no more, not even in name. It had lasted just over 1,100 years but had been undone by its own policies of allowing mass immigration from the non-European parts of the empire and by the use of racially alien slaves.

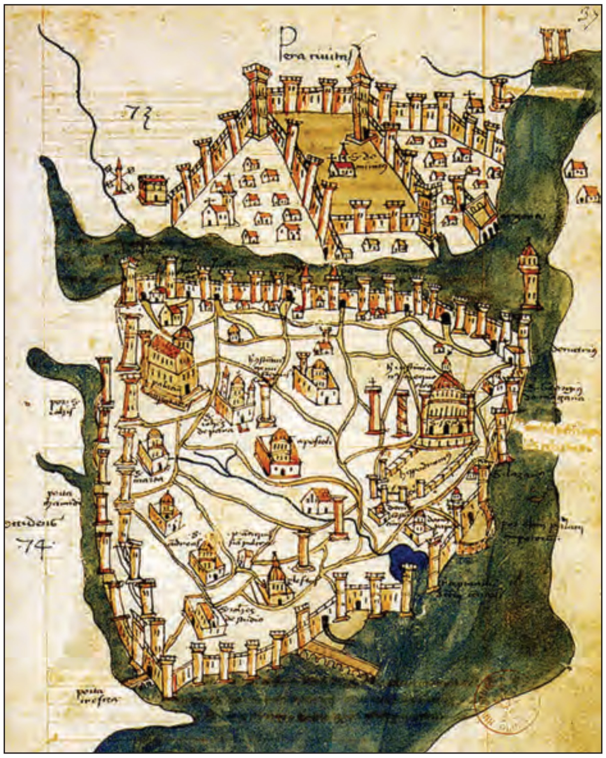
The original Roman population had been replaced by newcomers and had diminished in numbers to insignificance. The Empire had perished through its policy of racial diversity.

Chapter 23: Eastern Remnant—The Byzantine Empire

The Byzantine Empire, also known as the Eastern Roman Empire, survived the fall of the Western Roman Empire by nearly 1,000 years. However, it was Roman in name only and bore little cultural resemblance to the Western Roman Empire.

Founded in 330 AD, when Emperor Constantine I ordered the establishment of a new Christian capital on the site of the ancient Greek city of Byzantium (from which the empire derived its name), this state was, from its very inception, a Christian, multi-racial conglomeration. It only lasted as long as it did because it effectively allowed the different regions under its nominal control to be, for all practical purposes, independent.

OLDEST SURVIVING MAP OF CONSTANTINOPLE



*This map of Constantinople, dating from 1422, is the oldest surviving illustration of the city and the sole image that survived the Ottoman Turk conquest. It shows (center right) the Hagia Sophia and the Hippodrome, the famous Theodosian Walls, and, top center, the Tower of Galatia. All but the Hippodrome can still be seen in the present day. (*Liber insularum Archipelagi, *Bibliothèque nationale de France, Paris.)*

Byzantine's Population Racially Similar to that of Middle Eastern Dominated Rome

A 2022 archaeogenetic study on human remains from the Byzantine period found that their genetics clustered almost identically with that of the Middle Eastern-origin population of the city of Rome during its Imperial stage.[1]

Furthermore, the study discovered that both the Imperial era population of Rome and that of the Byzantines were completely different from the DNA of the population which founded Rome.

According to the study, "the ancestry of the sample of people whose genomes were analyzed who lived around Rome in the Imperial period was almost identical to that of Roman and Byzantine individuals from Anatolia in both their mean and pattern of variation, whereas Italians before the Imperial period had a very different distribution.

"This suggests that the Roman Empire, in both its shorter-lived western part and the longer-lasting east centered on Anatolia, had a diverse but similar population, plausibly drawn, to a substantial extent, from Anatolian pre-Imperial sources … the final incorporation of Anatolia into the Roman Empire and the increased connectivity that ensued may have set the stage for the very same Anatolians to become the demographic engine of Imperial Rome itself."[2]

Constantine I: Pivotal Founding Figure

Constantine I, also known as Constantine the Great, reigned as emperor from 306 to 337 AD. Born in 272 in Naissus (the present-day city of Niš in Serbia), Constantine was born into a senior military family. His father, Constantius Chlorus, was appointed the western Caesar (junior emperor) in the Tetrarchy system established by Diocletian.

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[1] "A genetic probe into the ancient and medieval history of Southern Europe and West Asia," Lazaridis, I., et al., *Science*, 25 Aug 2022, Vol 377, Issue 6609, pp. 940–951.

[2] *Ibid.*

When his father died in 306, Constantine was declared Augustus (senior emperor) by his troops. However, he had to fight a series of battles and engage in political maneuvers to consolidate his power. The culmination of these struggles was the famous Battle of Milvian Bridge in 312 AD, where he defeated his final rival, Maxentius.

Around this time, it is claimed that Constantine converted to Christianity, a religion that was still a small and persecuted sect within the empire.

In 313 AD, Constantine issued the famous Edict of Milan (along with his co-emperor Licinius), which granted religious tolerance to Christians, allowing them to worship freely. This edict effectively ended the state-sponsored persecution of Christians that had been ongoing.

To further promote Christianity, Constantine decided to establish a new capital for the Empire, away from the powerful pagan influences in Rome. He selected the strategically and commercially significant ancient Greek city of Byzantium, situated at the southernmost entrance to the Bosporus Straits connecting the Mediterranean and the Black Seas.

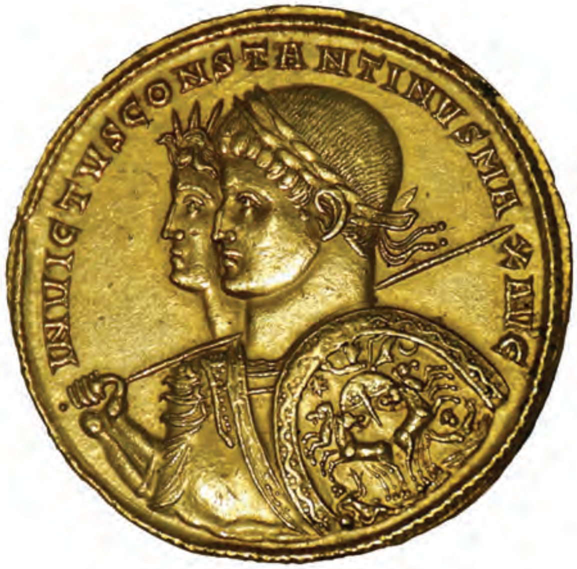
Constantine expanded the city and initially named it *Nova Roma* ("New Rome"). On May 11, 330 AD, the city was officially renamed Constantinople in honor of Constantine. This city subsequently became the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire and a central hub of Christendom.

Greek Becomes the Byzantine Lingua Franca

Owing to its location deep within the eastern provinces of the Roman Empire, few Romans actually settled or relocated there. Consequently, Constantine and his successors depended on the local population from areas like Eastern Greece, Asia Minor, and the broader Middle East for both its populace and its culture. The widespread adoption of Christianity among the ethnically diverse population of the Middle East significantly contributed to the endurance of the new capital.

Initially, Latin served as the official language of the state. However, due to the historical and cultural background of the region, Greek soon became the dominant language. This shift was influenced by the region's roots in Greek colonization, and the enduring cultural legacy of this period still influenced Asia Minor and a large portion of the Middle East. Yet, Greek was not the sole language of the Byzantine Empire. Several officially recognized languages, such as Coptic, Syriac, and Armenian, were also in use. This linguistic diversity mirrored the vast territorial reach of the Byzantine Empire, encompassing the farthest eastern regions of the Roman Empire and the province of Egypt.

CONSTANTINE I: FOUNDER OF CONSTANTINOPLE

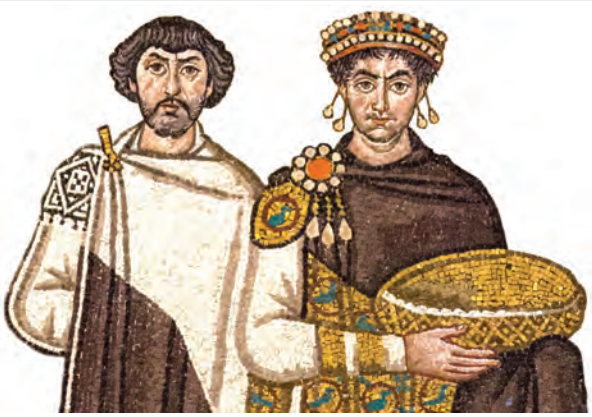


A gold solidus coin minted in Ticinum (Pavia) in 313 AD depicts Constantine with the sun god Sol in the background, accompanied by the inscription "Invictus Constantinus" ("Undefeated Constantine"). This was likely struck to commemorate his victory at the Battle of Milvian Bridge the previous year. The coin's use of pagan imagery suggests that his conversion to Christianity occurred later, challenging the oft-told narratives of divine communication during the battle. (Museum of the Bibliothèque nationale de France, Paris).

Empire Officially Divided in 395 AD

It was only in the year 395 AD that the Roman Empire was formally split into eastern and western halves. Emperor Theodosius I, who had declared Christianity to be the sole legal religion in the Empire, died that year. Upon his death, his two sons inherited the divided territories: Arcadius became the emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire, with its capital at Constantinople, and the ill-fated Honorius assumed the Western Roman Empire, governed from Ravenna.

GENERAL BELISARIUS AND JUSTINIAN, 547 AD



The only known portrait of the famous Byzantine General Belisarius, who led the reconquest of large parts of the former Western Roman Empire, dates from his lifetime and is a mosaic in the Basilica of San Vitale in Ravenna, Italy. This mosaic, completed in 547 AD to commemorate Justinian's establishment of the Exarchate of Ravenna following the partial reconquest of the West engineered by Belisarius, depicts the general standing in a place of honor next to the emperor.

Constantinople Wracked by Internal Divisions

Given the multi-cultural nature of the state from its inception and the absence of a defining Canon or collection of rules in this early stage of Christianity, the first decades of the Byzantine Empire were marked by internal divisions stemming from theological disputes.

The most profound of these were the "Christological controversies," centered on understanding how Jesus could be both divine and human. The church convened two councils, the Council of Ephesus (431 AD) and the Council of Chalcedon (451 AD), to address these controversies.

The decisions made, particularly at Chalcedon, resulted in lasting religious schisms, birthing the Oriental Orthodox churches that did not adhere to Chalcedonian definitions. These theological debates carried notable political ramifications, especially in the Byzantine Empire, where religious orthodoxy and imperial politics were closely interwoven.

By the time Justinian I ascended the throne in 527 AD, the Byzantine Empire had already experienced several transformations distinguishing it from its Roman origins. However, the early part of his reign witnessed a significant event: the Nika Riots of 532 AD. Originating from factional rivalries among chariot racing teams, the unrest escalated into a widespread revolt in Constantinople. Half the city was destroyed or burned, resulting in the deaths of tens of thousands. Emperor Justinian I considered fleeing the city, but his wife, Theodora, convinced him to remain and quash the revolt.

Justinian I Attempts to Reconquer the West

Reigning in Constantinople until 565 AD, Justinian I is arguably the second most pivotal figure in Byzantine history after Constantine I. His primary ambition was the reconquest of the territories of the now-defunct Western Roman Empire.

Led by his eminent generals, especially Belisarius and Narses, Justinian initiated campaigns that temporarily reclaimed significant areas, including parts of North. Moreover, Justinian instigated an extended conflict against the Ostrogothic Kingdom for dominion over Italy.

While the war concluded with a Byzantine victory and the capture of Ravenna, it ravaged Italy, leaving it susceptible to an invasion by the Germanic Lombard tribe, an event that transpired shortly after Justinian's death.

Western Territories Lost Again Within 100 Years

Even though Byzantine efforts to recapture parts of the Western Empire achieved some success, they were too fragile to retain the newly acquired territories. Only the North African provinces (presently recognized as Tunisia and eastern Algeria) remained relatively secure for about a century. These provinces eventually succumbed to the Arab Muslim conquests in the late 7th century.

The Byzantine conquest of Italy was supplanted by the Lombard invasion, and by the end of the 6th century, the Byzantines held onto only a few areas, the most notable being the Exarchate of Ravenna, some southern Italian regions, and sections of the coastline. These territories came under further pressure from the Arab Muslim invasions and the emergence of local Italian entities.

The Byzantine tenure in Spain was the briefest among Justinian's western recoveries. A minor segment of southern Spain was annexed in the 550s, but by the early 620s, the Visigoths, who dominated most of the Iberian Peninsula, had regained these territories from the Byzantines.

Post the 7th century, the most significant Byzantine territories in the west were situated in southern Italy.

Justinian Codifies Roman Law

One of Justinian's most enduring contributions is the codification of Roman law. He authorized a monumental project, which included the *Codex Justinianus* (a compilation of imperial edicts), the *Digest* (or *Pandects*, an anthology and analysis of ancient Roman legal principles), the *Institutes* (a manual for law students), and the *Novellae* (a compilation of new laws).

This codification profoundly shaped the evolution of legal thinking in the medieval West and remains a cornerstone of civil law in numerous contemporary nations.

Justinian Commissions the Hagia Sophia

The Nika Riots resulted in the destruction of the main cathedral built by Constantine. To replace this building, Justinian commissioned the construction of the Hagia Sophia in Constantinople. Completed in 537 AD, its massive dome and innovative architectural techniques rendered it an engineering marvel of its era. It stood as the world's largest cathedral for nearly a thousand years.

Besides the Hagia Sophia, Justinian launched a broad range of construction projects throughout the empire, encompassing churches, monasteries, fortifications, and aqueducts.

War with Persia Erodes Eastern Frontier

The age-old Roman adversary in the east, the Persians, had never entirely disappeared. Re-emerging as the Sassanid Empire, the Byzantines found themselves embroiled in a series of wars spanning from 502 to 628 AD.

The first war, unfolding between 502 and 506 AD, witnessed a Sassanid invasion that captured the prominent Byzantine strongholds of Theodosiopolis (today's city of Erzurum, situated in eastern Turkey near the border with Armenia and Georgia) and Amida (close to the modern-day Turkish city of Diyarbakır, along the Tigris River). While the Byzantines managed to recover some of the lost territories, the conflict concluded without a definitive winner.

A subsequent war over territory in the Caucasus erupted in 526. It yielded victories for both parties, but it drained both empires. This conflict culminated in what both sides termed the "Eternal Peace" in 532 AD, which, ironically, lasted only a few years.

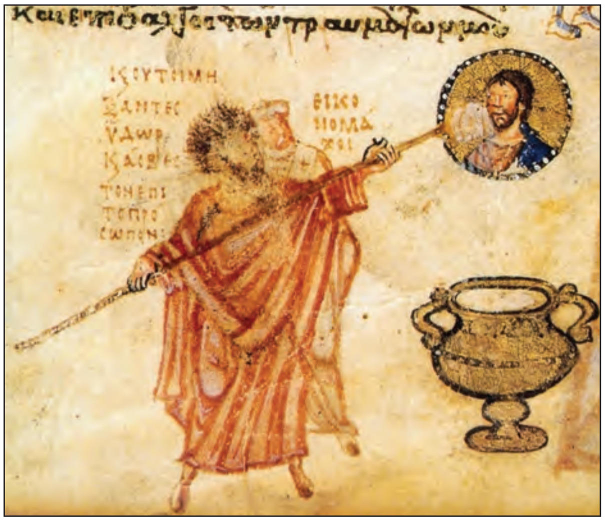
By 541, conflict had reignited when the Sassanids annexed the Byzantine territory of Lazica, which had shifted its allegiance from Persia to Byzantium. This protracted war concluded with a fifty-year peace treaty, essentially reinstating the earlier status quo.

In 572, another war ignited over territorial disagreements in the Caucasus. During this skirmish, the Sassanids seized and pillaged the significant Byzantine city of Antioch in 573. The war ended in 591 when the Byzantine Emperor Maurice assisted the legitimate Sassanid heir, Khosrow II, in reclaiming his throne from a usurper. In appreciation, Khosrow II surrendered parts of Armenia and western Mesopotamia to Byzantium. The final and most damaging confrontation between the two em-

THE HAGIA SOPHIA IN 537 AD

The Hagia Sophia Orthodox Church, as it appeared in 537 AD upon its completion. Originally, it was named Megale Ekklesia ("Big Church"), but from the fifth century onwards, it was referred to as the Hagia Sophia ("Holy Wisdom"). The church served as the coronation site for all Byzantine emperors and remained the largest operational cathedral in the city throughout the Byzantine era. After Constantinople was conquered by the Ottoman Turks, it was converted into a mosque. Christian crosses were removed, and minarets were erected on all sides of the main structure.

ICONOCLASM: ICONS SMASHED DOWN



Zealots smashing icons in a Byzantine church. The Iconoclasm controversy rocked Byzantium for nearly a century. This dispute over whether it was acceptable to have images in churches and whether to venerate them or not was finally settled in favor of the icons in 843 AD. (Chludov Psalter, 9th century, History Museum, Moscow.)

pires began in 602 with a fresh Sassanid incursion, annexing vast tracts of the eastern Byzantine lands, including Egypt, Palestine, and Syria. The Persians overran Jerusalem in 614, an event marked by a large-scale massacre, with various reports estimating tens of thousands of Christian residents killed. Shortly thereafter, the Sassanids overtook Egypt, a devastating blow for Byzantium, given Egypt's role as the empire's primary food source.

The Byzantine Emperor Heraclius initiated a counter-campaign in the 620s, achieving substantial victories deep within Sassanid lands. The war reached its climax at the Battle of Nineveh in 627, where Heraclius soundly defeated the Sassanid troops. In a brief span, both empires consented to revert to the status quo ante bellum, restoring territories and religious relics (including what the Byzantines believed to be the "True Cross" — purportedly the cross on which Jesus had been crucified) to their initial custodians.

The Rise of Islam Portends Byzantine's Doom

The Sassanid-Byzantine wars, especially the prolonged conflict from 602 to 628, left both empires exhausted and severely weakened, making them vulnerable to external threats.

Shortly after this, a new force appeared in the Middle East: Islam. Originating from its Semitic heartland in present-day Saudi Arabia, the early Muslim Caliphate, first under the Rashidun and then the Umayyads, conquered large portions of both empires.

The Sassanids were ultimately subsumed completely, and between the years 634 and 638, the Muslims took control of all of Syria. Two years later, they claimed Egypt. In a brief period, the Byzantine Empire lost almost all of its eastern provinces to this militant, mixed-race religion and could not prevent its steady advance north and west.

Iconoclasm Dispute Disrupts the Byzantines

Amid these pressures, a new theological dispute arose in Constantinople concerning the use of religious icons in the church. This led to the practice of "iconoclasm," or the prohibition of images of Jesus and Mary, among other religious symbols. In 730 AD, the Byzantine Emperor Leo III issued a decree banning the veneration of all images. His son, Constantine V (reigned 741–775), expanded on this decree, ordering the destruction of icons and often the severe persecution of their defenders, known as iconodules (icon-venerators).

This debate persisted, with varying degrees of intensity and violence, for the next 100 years, until Empress Theodora reinstated the veneration of icons in 842. The "Triumph of Orthodoxy" is still commemorated in the Eastern Orthodox Church in honor of this restoration.

Throughout much of this era, the Byzantines faced almost continuous warfare against the expanding Arab Muslim Caliphates.

Turkic Bulgars Incorporated

In the late 7th century, a group of Turkic people of mixed Central Asian racial origin, led by Khan Asparuh, migrated into the Balkans, crossing the Danube. Named "Bulgars," they established what became known as the "First Bulgarian Empire" in 681 after defeating a Byzantine force dispatched against them. The emergence of this state immediately north of the already diminishing Byzantine territory introduced a new military challenge for the emperors in Constantinople.

In 867 AD, a new emperor, Basil I, ascended the throne. Born a peasant in the region of ancient Macedonia (which was then Byzantine territory), the dynasty he founded became known as the "Macedonian dynasty." However, there was no direct link to the ancient state.

Under the Macedonian emperors, the Byzantine Empire initiated a series of wars against the Bulgars. Emperor Basil II, often referred to as "Bulgar-slayer," secured many crucial military victories. By the early 11th century, Basil II had soundly defeated the Bulgars and subsequently integrated their state into the Byzantine Empire, marking the first territorial expansion in nearly 500 years.

Cyrillic Created by Byzantine Missionaries

The Cyrillic alphabet, now used in Russia and some other eastern European states, traces its origins to the missionary work of Saints Cyril and Methodius, two Byzantine brothers from Thessalonica, in the 9th century. Their mission was to convert the Slavic peoples to Christianity, and as part of this endeavor, they sought to provide the Slavs with a written language for liturgy and religious texts.

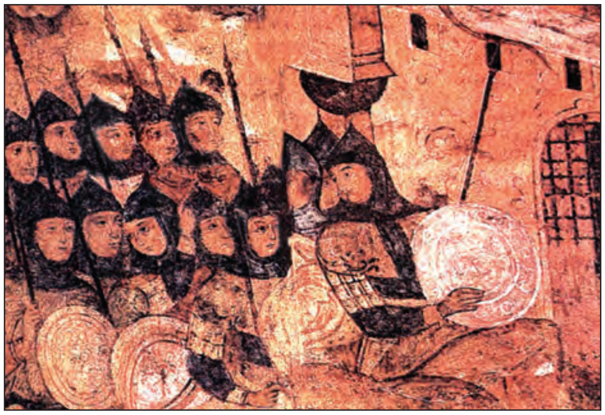
While traditionally attributed to Saint Cyril, it is believed that the Cyrillic script was developed by one of Cyril's disciples. Regardless of its creator, the Cyrillic alphabet, based on Greek and with additional characters for Slavic sounds not found in Greek, first emerged in the region of Bulgaria under the patronage of Tsar Boris I. Over time, the Cyrillic alphabet spread among various Slavic and non-Slavic peoples, undergoing modifications and adaptations to fit different languages. Today, the Cyrillic script is used by many languages in Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and Northern Asia.

Alliance with the Kievan Rus' Formed

Further to the north, a band of Scandinavians known as the Rus', under their Prince Rurik, was invited in 862 AD to rule over the Slavic tribes in what is today northern Russia to bring order and protection. Rurik established his first capital in the city of Novgorod (a city that still exists by that name, located today in Russia near the borders of Finland and the Baltic States).

Rurik's successor, Oleg, expanded southward and captured the city of Kiev (today in Ukraine) and made it the capital of the Rus' territories, hence the name "Kievan Rus'." This expansion brought the emerging Rus' state closer to the Byzantines. Before long, the Rus' conducted several raids on Constantinople. However, these military endeavors often resulted in treaties generally favorable to the Rus', promoting trade and diplomacy.

KIEVAN RUS' SOLDIERS IN CONSTANTINOPLE



Soldiers from the Kievan Rus in Constantinople. The city's famous Theodosian Walls can be seen in this illustration, taken from a medieval Russian Orthodox Church icon.

Through interactions with Byzantium, the Kievan Rus' was introduced to Orthodox Christianity. Their Prince Vladimir the Great, who ruled from 980 to 1015, notably converted from paganism to Byzantine Orthodox Christianity in 988 AD. After his baptism, Vladimir mandated the Christianization of the Kievan Rus', leading to the widespread baptism of his subjects.

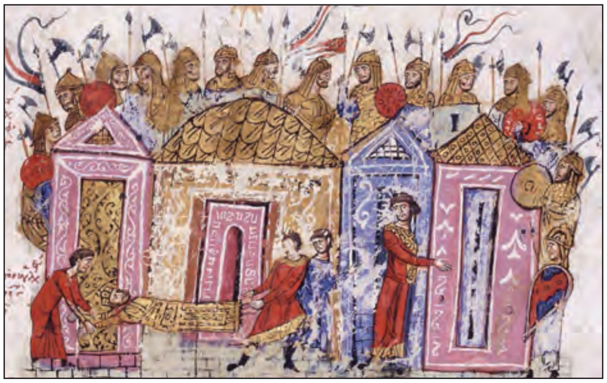
This event had profound cultural, political, and historical significance, marking the start of the Christian East Slavic civilization. It also brought the Cyrillic script to Russia.

Great Schism between Orthodox and Roman Catholic Churches, 1054

The vast geographic distance between Constantinople and Rome—the centers of eastern and western Christianity, the absence of speedy communication, and the use of different languages (Latin and Greek) by the respective churches, inevitably resulted in differences of interpretation.

The most notable point of contention between the two was the *Filioque* clause, a Latin term meaning "and the Son." The West added this clause to the Nicene Creed, asserting that the Holy Spirit proceeds from both the Father and the Son. The East, however, believed that the Holy Spirit proceeds only from God ("the Father"). While this may seem obscure to an outsider, it was deemed important

VARANGIAN GUARD IN CONSTANTINOPLE



The Varangian Guard, an elite unit composed of Scandinavians and Anglo-Saxons, played a major role in the defense of Constantinople from the 10th to 14th centuries. (Illustration from the Madrid Skylitzes, Biblioteca Nacional de España, Madrid.)

enough to precipitate a major split, and the division soon spread to differences in customs, such as the type of bread used in the ceremony commemorating the Last Supper, in which bread and wine are consecrated and consumed (called the Eucharist in the Christian tradition). Finally, the bishop of Rome, now known as the pope, claimed supremacy over all the Christian patriarchs (Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem), while the latter recognized the pope only as "first among equals" and as having no authority over the others.

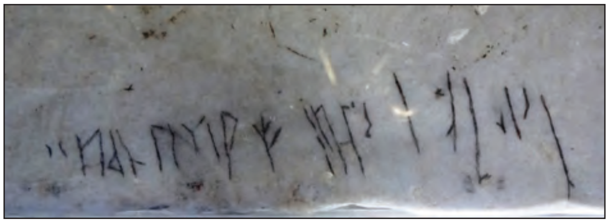
In 1054, Pope Leo IX sent a delegation, led by Cardinal Humbert, to Constantinople to discuss the issues of the use of unleavened bread in the Eucharist and the pope's claim to authority over the church in southern Italy with Patriarch Michael Cerularius of Constantinople.

After a series of hostile exchanges between the two church leaders, Humbert laid a bull of excommunication against the Patriarch on the altar of the Hagia Sophia. In response, Cerularius excommunicated Humbert and his delegation. This caused a final break between the Roman Catholic and Eastern Orthodox churches which has lasted to the present day.

Mercenaries used as Decline Accelerates

By this time, the Byzantine Empire was facing a crisis similar to that which had afflicted the Western Roman Empire: an increasingly multi-racial population, combined with "barbarian" pressures on its borders.

VIKING GRAFFITI IN THE HAGIA SOPHIA



High up in the marble parapets of the interior of the Hagia Sophia, a runic inscription was discovered in 1964. It contains the Norse name Halvdan, along with some other illegible runes, which are presumed to read "Halvdan was here." The inscription was likely carved by a member of the Varangian Guard.

The final tell-tale sign was the use of foreign mercenaries to bolster the military strength of the Byzantine armies: just as in the Western Empire's final days, the Byzantines also began relying on Europeans, and northwestern Europeans in particular, to supplement their dwindling numbers of local recruits.

Perhaps the most famous of these was the "Varangian Guard," an elite unit of the Byzantine army, consisting predominantly of Norsemen from Scandinavia, and later, Anglo-Saxons from England. The term "Varangian" originally referred to the Norse traders and explorers who traveled through Eastern Europe along river routes to the Byzantine Empire and the Caliphates of the Middle East.

The Guard's formation is dated to the reign of Emperor Basil II in the 10th century. After facing a series of internal rebellions, Basil II sought loyal troops and began recruiting Varangians. He first requested military assistance from Vladimir I of Kiev, who sent him Varangian warriors. These warriors formed the core of what became the Varangian Guard.

After the Norman conquest of England in 1066, many Anglo-Saxons and Danes left England. A significant number joined the Varangian Guard, infusing the unit with a new wave of recruits. The Guard thus evolved from being primarily Scandinavian to an Anglo-Scandinavian force.

Western mercenaries began to serve in Byzantine armies more frequently during the Empire's later period. These mercenaries were often valued for their heavy cavalry, which the Byzantines lacked.

The *pronoia* system, a form of land grant in exchange for military service, was sometimes offered to these Western knights, binding them to the Byzantine state. Notably, the Normans, who, despite being adversaries in places like Italy, also found roles as mercenaries in Byzantium.

Political Instability in Mid-11th Century

The mid-11th century saw several emperors ascend the Byzantine throne, often with short and troubled reigns. This period included the reigns of Constantine IX Monomachos (1042–1055), Theodora (1055–1056), Michael VI (1056–1057), Isaac I Komnenos (1057–1059), and Constantine X Doukas (1059–1067). The frequent changes in leadership reflected the divided nature of Byzantine society, aggravated by economic decline. The increasing use of mercenaries, while providing immediate military force, also brought issues of loyalty and expense.

Byzantines Lose Territories on All Fronts

In the early part of the 11th century, large groups of Normans from northern France had entered southern Italy as mercenaries to find ready employment with the Lombard kingdoms and their ongoing struggles with the Byzantine colonies in Italy. From there, they formed their own states, and by 1060, had wrested control of Apulia from the Byzantines. Within a decade, they had seized all the remaining Byzantine territories in southern Italy.

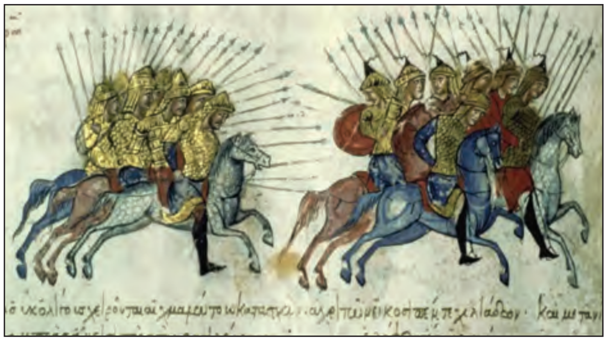
On its northern and northeastern frontiers, the Byzantines faced threats from mixed-race nomadic tribes such as the Pechenegs and the Oghuz Turks. These groups launched raids into Byzantine territories, further straining the empire's military resources.

Seljuk Turks and the Battle of Manzikert, 1071

The Seljuks, originally a nomadic Turkic people from Central Asia, converted to Sunni Islam and began to move into the Islamic heartlands in the 10th century. By the mid-11th century, they had founded the Great Seljuk Empire, which stretched from Central Asia to Anatolia, encroaching on the eastern border of the Byzantine Empire.

Tensions with the Seljuk Turks escalated, and the Byzantine Emperor Romanos IV Diogenes assembled an army and marched east to halt the westward advance of the Seljuks under their leader, Sultan Alp Arslan. The two armies met in battle near Manzikert in eastern Anatolia, and the Seljuks emerged victorious. The defeat opened up Anatolia for Seljuk expansion. While the entirety of Anatolia did not fall immediately, the defeat meant the steady advance of Turkic tribes into the region, which led to the establishment of the Sultanate of Rum (or Seljuk Sultanate of Anatolia).

BYZANTINE SOLDIERS PURSUE MUSLIMS



A battle scene depicts Byzantine soldiers (left) pursuing Muslim forces, identifiable by their helmet decorations. (Illustration from the Madrid Skylitzes, Biblioteca Nacional de España, Madrid.)

The defeat proved to be a catalyst for unrest in Constantinople, and the city was plunged into an extended period of civil wars and internal strife. Capitalizing on the paralysis which followed, the Seljuks quickly advanced deep into Anatolia, capturing the vital and famous cities of Nicaea (located close to Constantinople) and Antioch.

First Crusade's Unexpected Results (1095–1099)

In response to the Seljuk advance, the Byzantine Emperor Alexios I Komnenos sent envoys to the Council of Piacenza in 1095 to request military aid from Pope Urban II and Western Christendom. This call was met positively, and the First Crusade was organized in response.

While Emperor Alexios I had hoped for a military force to support his campaigns against the Turks, the sheer size and independent nature of the Crusader armies took the Byzantines by surprise. Alexios was wary of the Crusaders' intentions and insisted that their leaders swear an oath to return any recovered lands to the Byzantine Empire.

With the aid of the Crusaders, several territories and cities were recaptured, including Nicaea and parts of western Asia Minor. However, tensions were evident, especially during the siege of

Antioch in 1098. The Crusader leader at that siege, Bohemond of Taranto, claimed the city for himself, breaking his oath to return it to Byzantine control.

In 1099, the Crusaders successfully captured Jerusalem. Instead of a return to Byzantine rule, the territories captured by the Crusaders became independent Latin Christian states, known as the Crusader States. These included the Kingdom of Jerusalem, the County of Edessa, the County of Tripoli, and the Principality of Antioch.

The Byzantines, under their next set of rulers known as the "Komnenian Restoration" (1081–1185), managed to maintain a semblance of stability on the new borders of the empire, even though it was already substantially smaller than before the First Crusade.

Muslims Recapture Jerusalem, 1187

In the interim, the Muslim forces in the south, under the leadership of the Kurdish-born Salah ad-Din Yusuf ibn Ayyub, better known to history as Saladin, had regathered their strength. A new conflict erupted as they started to recapture territory from the Crusader States.

By 1187, Saladin had recaptured Jerusalem, an event which caused Pope Gregory VIII to call for yet another Crusade. This Crusade, the third one to be called, failed to retake Jerusalem but temporarily halted the Muslim advance north.

However, by the year 1204, the Seljuks had advanced west once again, and even more territory fell under their control. The crisis facing Constantinople loomed even larger than before the First Crusade.

Fourth Crusade ends in Sack of Constantinople

The call for the Fourth Crusade was issued by Pope Innocent III in 1198, aiming to recapture Jerusalem, which had fallen to Saladin in 1187. However, unlike previous crusades, the Fourth Crusade was largely funded and organized by European monarchs and nobility rather than the Papacy.

The Crusaders sought the help of Venice to provide ships and supplies for their journey to the Holy Land. Enrico Dandolo, the elderly and shrewd Doge of Venice, agreed, but the Crusaders failed to gather the agreed-upon funds to pay for the fleet.

As a form of repayment, the Venetians persuaded the Crusaders to help them capture the Christian city of Zara (now Zadar, Croatia), which had revolted against Venetian control. The siege and capture of Zara in 1202 was the first sign that the Fourth Crusade was straying from its religious objectives.

Alexios IV Angelos, a Byzantine prince in exile, then approached the Crusaders promising them money, soldiers, and support for their mission to Jerusalem if they helped him reclaim the throne

THEODOSIAN WALLS OF CONSTANTINOPLE, CIRCA 450 AD

The Theodosian Walls, which protected the city of Constantinople were a series of defensive walls built primarily during the reign of Emperor Theodosius II in the 5th century. Constantinople was famously difficult for enemy forces to breach, which in turn helped the Byzantine Empire endure for nearly another thousand years after the walls' construction. The picture shows a section of the walls as they can be seen today, with the difference between the original parts and the reconstructed sections easily discernible.

in Constantinople from his uncle, Alexios III Angelos. Seeing an opportunity to gain resources for their crusade, the Crusaders agreed. The Crusaders and Venetians laid siege to Constantinople in 1203. They successfully installed Alexios IV as co-emperor with his blind father, Isaac II Angelos. However, the new emperor's promises went unfulfilled, mainly due to the immense unpopularity of the Crusaders in Constantinople and the dire financial state of the Byzantine Empire.

In early 1204, Alexios IV's position became untenable. He was overthrown and eventually strangled to death by a court official. A staunch anti-Crusader regime under Alexios V Ducas then assumed power. Feeling betrayed and with no other viable means to fund their expedition to the Holy Land, the Crusaders, spurred on by the Venetians, decided to capture and plunder Constantinople. The city fell on April 13, 1204. The ensuing sack lasted for three days, during which many of Constantinople's ancient and medieval treasures were stolen or destroyed. The Crusaders also committed numerous atrocities against the city's inhabitants.

Following the capture of Constantinople, the Crusaders established what became known as the "Latin Empire" in Byzantium, while Byzantine successor states sprang up: the Despotate of Epirus, the Empire of Trebizond, and the Empire of Nicaea.

The Fourth Crusade had turned out to be a crusade against Constantinople and never reached the originally intended Muslim enemy.

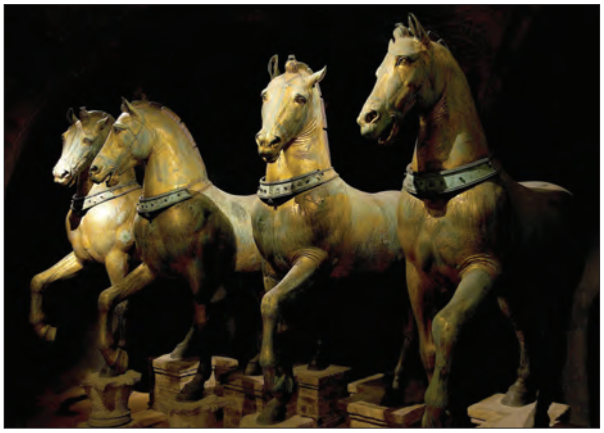
Nicaean Resurgence Takes Back Constantinople

The Empire of Nicaea, the most significant of the Byzantine successor states, set as its goal the restoration of the Byzantine Empire. Under two sets of leaders, the Laskaris and later the Palaiologos dynasty, they were successful in their aim.

Michael VIII Palaiologos recaptured Constantinople in 1261 from the Latins, marking the end of the Latin Empire and restoring the Byzantine Empire. However, the empire was a shadow of its former self.

The late Palaiologan period (named after the ruling Palaiologos dynasty) was marked by several civil wars. The most damaging was the conflict between Andronikos II and his grandson Andronikos III from 1321–1328. These internal conflicts considerably weakened the Empire.

BRONZE HORSES FROM CONSTANTINOPLE



Four bronze horses that stood on the Hippodrome of Constantinople, known as the Triumphal Quadriga, were preserved primarily because they were looted during the disastrously off-course Fourth Crusade. That Crusade, intended to fight the Muslim invasion of the Middle East, veered off its path and ended up sacking Constantinople following a series of misadventures. They were transported back to Venice, where they were installed on the loggia above the porch of St. Mark's Basilica. They have since been moved indoors, with replicas placed on the outside.

Ottoman Turks Emerge as the Final Enemy

In the east, a new force emerged from northwest Anatolia: the Ottoman Turks. Named after their founder, Osman I, these Central Asian nomads had entered Asia Minor along with the Seljuks, but had grown powerful in their own right. After 1299, they began expanding west, directly challenging the Byzantines.

The Byzantines were by now an exhausted race, largely intermixed, and only sustained by occasional European migrants who served in the military or other state structures.

Osman I's raids into Byzantine territory, however, provoked a response. In 1302, a Byzantine army was dispatched to counter the Ottoman forces. This army was largely composed of mercenary troops, including Alan and Catalan soldiers from western Europe. The resulting Battle of Bapheus in that year ended in a decisive Ottoman victory. Following the battle, the Ottomans rapidly expanded their territories in western Anatolia, seizing Byzantine forts, towns, and cities. The victory boosted the prestige and legitimacy of Osman I and his fledgling state, attracting more warriors and *Ghazi* (fighters for the faith) to his banner. It also established the Ottomans as a formidable military power in the region.

More importantly, the Battle of Bapheus highlighted the Byzantine Empire's vulnerability and its inability to effectively counter the rising Turkish powers in Anatolia. Over the subsequent decades, the Byzantines continued to lose ground in Asia Minor.

By the time of Emperor Manuel II (reigned 1391–1425), the Byzantine Empire's borders had been reduced to a small territory surrounding Constantinople itself. The last of the Byzantines took refuge behind the massive Theodosian Walls (built between 312 and 413 AD by Emperor Theodosius II) which surrounded the city and grimly awaited the inevitable end.

The Siege and Fall of Constantinople, 1453

The Ottomans laid siege to Constantinople for the first time in 1422 under the leadership of Sultan Murad II. The city managed to resist, relying on the strength of the walls to keep the enemy at bay. However, it was clear that the end was imminent.

A new Ottoman Sultan, Mehmed II, amassed a large army, possibly numbering around 100,000 men, while Constantinople's defense was led by the last Byzantine Emperor, Constantine XI Palaiologos.

The defenders numbered fewer than 10,000, many of whom were mercenaries or volunteers from Western Europe. Mehmed's great advantage was that he had a turncoat European engineer in his ranks, a Hungarian by the name of Orban, who built several mighty cannons for the Muslim besiegers. With these weapons, the Theodosian Walls were finally breached after a 53-day siege.

On May 29, 1453, after a 53-day siege, Ottoman troops breached the walls in the early morning. Despite a fierce defense, the city's fate was sealed. Emperor Constantine XI reportedly died fighting in the streets, though his body was never identified. By the afternoon, the city was in Ottoman hands.

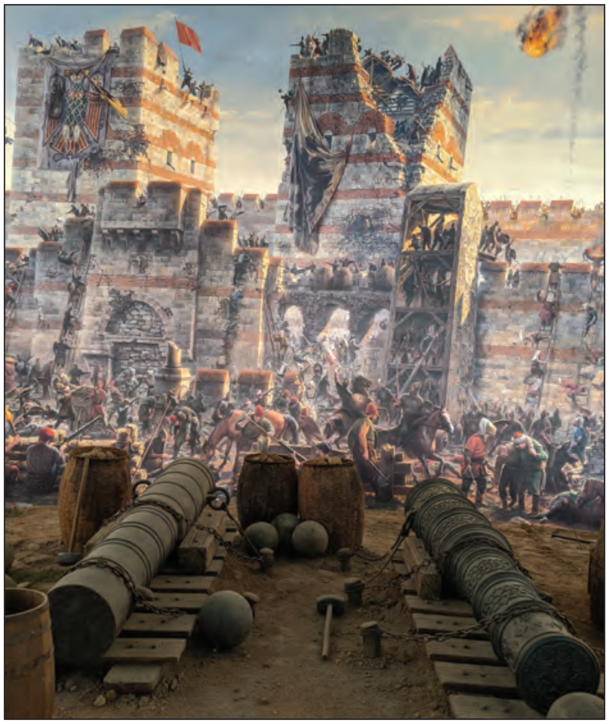
A general massacre followed, and the city was sacked. The Hagia Sophia was stripped and turned into a mosque. Eventually, the city was renamed Istanbul, a name it retains to the present day. The Byzantine Empire, which had long since ceased to be an empire of any sort, was finished.

Dire Consequences for South Eastern Europe

The fall of Constantinople was an event momentous in itself, but which had profound repercussions for Eastern Europe. Although the city had long had a racially diverse population and had only been sustained by a steady influx of Europeans from other parts of Europe, it had served as a significant barrier to Muslim invaders.

The fall of the city finally opened the gates to southeastern Europe, and within 250 years, the invaders had reached the gates of Vienna. In this manner, the Muslim invaders marched north all the way through the Balkans, establishing mixed race communities and numerous Islamic centers, creating endless racial chaos which sparked wars and ethnic conflicts which still persist to the present day.

EUROPEAN CANNONS USED TO BREACH THEODOSIAN WALLS



The Walls of Constantinople were finally breached due to the engineering prowess of a white turncoat from Hungary named Orban. In exchange for a substantial sum, Orban built several massive cannons for the Ottomans. They inflicted so much damage in one area that the overwhelming number of Muslim soldiers could overpower the few European defenders by sheer force. (Panorama 1453 History Museum, Istanbul, Turkey.)

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